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BOOKLET 7

DIVISION OF EDUCATION AND RESEARCH

SECTION OF EDUCATION AND TRAINING

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SECTION OF LIBRARY THEORY AND RESEARCH

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Library and Information Services in Culturally diverse Communities

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Abstract
In the United States, especially in California, public libraries have had a strong tradition of seeking various ways to meet the information needs of the growing ethnic population groups: American Indians, Latinos, Asian Americans, and African Americans. This paper analyzed the existing body of literature concerning the provision of information services for these four groups. The analysis revealed that the literature clusters into the following: (1) articles and reviews of communication behavior; (2) surveys detailing the provision of culturally specific library services, programs and resources; (3) commentaries and studies on the training, placement and continuing education of library personnel who work with culturally diverse groups; and (4) analyses of the funding sources and issues associated with the provision of new programs or the maintenance of existing ones. It was found that Information and Referral programs were the most frequent means utilized to address the information needs of culturally diverse groups in the United States. It was also determined that in developing Information and Referral services and in measuring their effectiveness, the emphasis has been on determining the number of end-users effected by or benefitting from the services. While this data offered some measure of utility, the analysis indicated that the information needs of the targeted end-users have not been effectively met.

The need for a new model for delivering information services to ethnic groups was proposed. Such a model would focus on community based information gate-keepers as the targeted end-users of information in ethnic communities.

Additional research areas generated by the literature review and the results of personal interviews included: (1) Ethnic groups and the United States 1990 Census Data; (2) Communication and networking behavior of information gate-keepers; and (3) Information needs of knowledge workers. Consideration of these areas included a discussion of the implications of such research for library educators, information professionals and library administrators.

Two decades have passed since our profession generated the first wave of literature and early research on library services and information needs of culturally diverse people. Given the passage of twenty years, particularly since that period also saw the birth of the explosive Information Age, a reasonable assumption would be that our profession has made significant progress in relation to producing a more mature body of literature, evidencing major advancement and innovations associated with enhancing library and information services to culturally diverse people. It is therefore timely to (1) review the progress on national research conducted on services to the culturally diverse with special attention to research methodologies and service strategies; and (2) suggest a research agenda.

The paper focuses on the literature and programs associated with the four major culturally diverse groups in the United States: Afro-American, American Indian, Asian American, and Latino. Rather than re-engage in the semantic and definitional battles that characterized so

much of the previous dialogue on what constitutes the most appropriate term for a specific minority or cultural linguistic group, the terminology used in this paper is based on generally acknowledged terms that have gained acceptance over the last two decades.

Literature review: The quest for a progression

The bulk of the professional literature of the late 1960s and 1970s consists primarily of personal testimonials, collection building advice, and emotional pleas for services relating to the needs of minority people. The common testimonial threads are all too evident. The profession has produced some studies that do provide current and incisive compilations of the literature. Fisher provides a solid historical overview of the library research on Afro-Americans, American Indians, Asian Americans, and Mexican Americans, from pre-civil rights era to 1983.[1]

The following section builds from Fisher's work and identifies key areas still meriting research. The discussion also identifies what research has been done concerning these four ethnic groups. The purpose of this approach is to encourage scholars to build upon the existing research base. Research should not reamin fragmentary and non-cumulative.

Afro-Americans

Fisher identified topical areas meriting research. The following four areas still require scholarship and work that goes beyond mere testimonials. Additional research might examine the pre-civil rights era in Afro-American librarianship and associated services. Similarly, research from the civil rights era has not fully documented the Afro-American experiences of that time.[2,3]

There has been little, if any, analysis of the personal observations and efforts of Afro-American librarians. Individual projects reported in the literature are frequently presentend from a non-minority perspective. An additional area considered relevant for study and research includes the impact and use of various forms of media (print and non-print) on the Afro-American population. This type of communications research is still needed and would have valuable implications for librarians in all types of population settings.[4,5] Other elusive topics for research include the effect of Afro-American librarians in Anglo settings, Afro-American resources collected in those settings, and criteria for basic collections in those settings.

American Indians

Research on library services for the information needs of American Indians has been almost exclusively centered upon the events of the last 20 years.[6,7,8] In-depth research on historically available services and programs has been typically hampered by lack of adequate record keeping and data tracking by both service providers and funding agencies.[9] A thorough bibliography identifying successful programs, personal and professional observations and unsuccessful efforts with this indigenous population has yet to be developed.[10]

State-of-the-art research efforts on American Indians,[11] including the role of the federal, state and local government in funding and providing Indian library services,[12] need to be updated. Study of this unique funding relationship between American Indians and the federal government should be continued and significantly enhanced.[13]

Due to the issues associated with proper tribal designation and differentiation, classification issues and bibliographic automated access[14] concerns remain important areas for research. Publications of the National Indian Education Association's Library Project, which described the information needs of American Indians and the problems associated with meeting those needs[15] should be reassessed for current applicability. Similarly, investigation of

current attempts to meet the information needs of American Indians, such as the *Bureau of Indian Affairs Plan for the Improvement of Library, Media and Information Programs*[16] should be continued and updated.

Asian Americans

Library and information needs of Asian American population groups appear to be the least well documented area of library and information science research in relation to culturally diverse populations. This conclusion was validated in a special *First Needs Assessment,* commissioned by a Task Force of the National Commission on Library and Information Science.[17] Comparative analysis of library services (public and academic) for various Asian groups (Chinese, Japanese, Koreans, Vietnamese, etc.) has not been generally conducted and constitutes a primary opportunity for research. Studies have primarily examined services and programs for Chinese-Americans.[18 19 20]

Mexican Americans

The bulk of early information concerning library and information services to Mexican Americans is comprised chiefly of one-time reports of programs and personal observations.[21 22 23] Some of the key outcomes of public and academic library activities, including attention to academic and other resources hold great potential for additional research.[24 25 26]

A few comprehensive analyses of information needs of Mexican Americans have occurred in the last ten years.[27 28 29] There is general acceptance of the positive effects of the growing number of Mexican American librarians entering the field of librarianship,[30] but the real benefits have yet to be quantatively measured and reported.

Summary

There is a need to focus on the information needs of the culturally diverse within the context of their total community information environment. In addition, it is imperative that the library profession harness new technologies (including hardware, software and electronic communication capabilities) that can improve and enhance service to the culturally diverse.

Research agenda

The specific research topics are clustered under five broad headings. While not exhaustive or exclusive in composition, the suggested topics will hopefully elicit dialogue and serve as a seed bed to which other scholars can readily contribute.

Culturally diverse political representation

One area that has increased in importance relates to culturally diverse political representation. A prime subject to consider is the systematic analysis of the impact of legislative and lobbying efforts by culturally diverse elected officials with respect to funding and support programs. Similarly, there is a need to correlate the effect of culturally diverse representation on library boards.

1990 Census data

It would be beneficial to compare the actual utilization of hard information (problem-solving information) for ethnolinguistic groups, utilizing standard English versus indigenous formats.

Another timely research topic deals with the demographic implications of legal versus illegal immigration status in relation to the provision of library and information services. The 1990 census will certainly focus on this complex issue of 'legal' versus 'illegal' status.

Culturally diverse population growth

It is important to analyze our use of standard inquiry and response techniques utilized in library user studies, i.e., Are we asking the right questions? Another potentially fruitful area, would be to consider the impact and benefit of joint studies conducted by library researchers and cross-cultural research centers on language patterns and resource (print and non-print) utilization by ethnolinguistic groups (i.e., consider alliances with institutions such as the University of Texas Cross-Cultural Center).

Research is also needed on our profession's continued reliance on standardized procedures commonly used for determining output measures for public libraries in culturally diverse communities. We need to ask if standardized procedures and traditional modes of data analysis, equally apply to all populations? For example, is it valid to rate traditional book reading as more important than the use of fotonovellas by Latinos?

Electronic networking and computer literacy

Given the explosive proliferation of micro computers and associated peripherals, it is also appropriate to consider an analysis of the cognitive learning rates of culturally diverse students utilizing computer-based instruction. The opportunities for conducting rigorous research in this area are boundless.

Needs of knowledge workers

First, it would be useful to conduct comparative analyses of career pathing of culturally diverse librarians. A related topic deals with a longitudinal analysis of positions held by culturally diverse librarians. Another subject that requires attention is an analysis of the motivational determinates of former librarians: Why did they leave and where did they go? How are they doing? Finally, there is a need to study the information seeking behavior of culturally diverse professionals in business, health, industry, government and the educational sectors, to determine if significant differences exist between them and other professionals.

As already noted, the existing research base is noncumulative and fragmentary. This research agenda not only encourages the development of research that corrects this circumstance, but also directs the research and scholarship toward a common end, that being the development, testing, refinement, and implementation of a model for the more effective delivery of information services to culturally diverse groups.

Development of a model for information delivery

Public libraries in the United States have had a strong tradition of seeking various ways to meet the information needs of culturally diverse population groups. In developing reference and Information and Referral services and in measuring their effectiveness, the emphasis has been on determining the number of end-users effected by or benefitting from the service. While the data offer some measure of utility, the investigations, in essence, indicate that the information needs of these end-users have not been effectively met.

It is the purpose of the project entitled "Information Gate-keepers in California's Ethnic Communities" to provide a different model for delivering information and referral services to the information gate-keepers.[31] The proposed model is based on the assumption that the "end-users" of public libraries as defined in many of the studies of library effectiveness are not the library's true end-users. This study will investigate whether the people who most directly need and profit from information obtain it from community-based information gate-keepers, who are not typically identified as the library's end-users. In Latino, Asian and American Indian communities, these gate-keepers may be non-English speaking or choose English as a secondary language. Therefore, this study targets both the institutionally based

and non-institutionally-based gate-keepers, the English speaking and the non-English speaking, in the three ethnic groups, who have the most potential for increasing the flow and utility of information in their communities.

The eight objectives of the study are as follows:

(1) To ascertain the communication and networking behavior of the information gate-keepers;

(2) To identify how the information gate-keepers formulate and transfer information to end-users;

(3) To compare the information seeking behavior of the gate-keeper within each of the three ehtnic groups;

(4) To demonstrate and compare the role and importance of language in the information seeking behavior of Latinos, Asian Americans and American Indians;

(5) To classify the type of information that is transmitted;

(6) To demonstrate the role and importance of various information sources (including the public library) to the gate-keepers;

(7) To establish a mechanism for the exchange of information between librarians, and gate-keepers in their respective communities;

(8) To identify more effective Information and Referral delivery systems for utilization by information gate-keepers.

Implications for the education of information professionals

The focus traditionally has been on training individuals for employment as public librarians in culturally diverse communities. The Information Age combined with the stronger orientation of universities toward research has dictated that schools of library and information science can no longer emphasize training over education as previously done in the United States. The schools have to be more oriented toward basic and applied research and development and conveyance of theories and principles. The intent, now is to better educate students for the provision of services and programs for the future.

As a result, there are clear implications for the curriculum, recruitment and placement of students. Students intending to work with ethnolinguistic groups might be advised to master the following: the appropriate languages, management, organization of information, reference, information policy, information seeking behavior, and research methods emphasizing evaluation. Schools which are located in regions which are experiencing culturally diverse population growth, may offer a specific course designed to address the unique information needs of these groups. Complimentary to an effective curriculum are faculty and doctoral students engaged in meeting the aforementioned research agenda and in being sensitive to the appropriate cultures. This sensitivity should of course be reflected in the recruitment and retention of students and faculty.

Challenge for the future

As Merton states, "Work occupies the body and the mind and is necessary for the health of the spirit. .. Work brings peace to the soul that has a semblance of order and spiritual understanding."[32] He identifies the challenge which we must meet, if library and information services are to reach all of the intended population.

We need a research plan to bring a small degree of order and spirit to our efforts towards the prompt and effective delivery of information in a technological age, where national borders are breaking down and information is being more freely distributed.

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Library Education in a Pluralistic Society

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Abstract
The pluralistic nature of many modern societies poses a challenge to the librarian and to accepted forms of library education. Pluralism is seen in many ways: educational levels, economic status, religious, linguistic and ethnic variety, etc., all of which may to some degree obligate differential forms of library services, in order to best meet patrons' needs.

To cope with the challenge of pluralism, the librarian needs to be familiar with concepts of social science and of communications. Unfortunately, this is not in evidence in the library school curriculum. Instead, such changes as are introduced focus on acquainting students with modern technologies that are becoming common in libraries: computers, information retrieval, and so forth.

In order that librarians should be *reader*-centered, rather than *technology*-centered, courses in comparative librarianship, the library in society and the history of library services should be introduced (or re-introduced) into the curriculum, alongside courses in interpersonal and mass communications, anthropology, human engineering and so forth.

The pluralism existing in most societies today presents special challenges to librarians throughout the world, and their ability to serve their public in spite of its heterogeneity will depend to a great extent on the kind of education we can offer aspiring librarians. Therefore we shall have to define what social pluralism implies from the point of view of library development and to discuss what are the implications of these social features for library education.

The most fundamental characteristic of social pluralism is the divergent and often contradictory features of society. While multiple ideologies, norms and values must co-exist within physical borders and affect the behavior of different population groups, the basic professional ethic of the librarians in the Western world has traditionally urged them to serve all groups of society in acquiring information, to make available to patrons of all persuasions and views all the information that does not conflict with the need for privacy of others. Students of librarianship are taught that in a democratic society it is the duty of the library to give information, preferably free of charge, to every reader. A public library, therefore, needs a librarian whose personal world outlook is liberal and unbiased, whose professional training has oriented him towards tolerance and acceptance of a variety of opinions and views, and whose belief in the democratic and free exchange of ideas is unshaken.

As opposed to the democratic public library, other types of libraries – special, academic and school libraries – are focused on the needs of a part of the total society and the professional ethic of everything to all does not apply. Special libraries often limit severely the number of people having access to their information, and in some cases even discriminate among people within the same organisation. Few academic libraries serve the general public of the area in which they are physically situated, restricting service to faculty, students and staff, but excluding most of others. The materials available in a school library are accessible only to the students and teachers of the school, and use of the collection or parts of it may not even be granted to all the age-groups attending a particular school.

It is therefore clear that the demands for information within a defence or industrial complex will be restricted to a selected few and the librarian may be charged with the responsibility of barring outsiders or eventual competitors from access to the library's information. When treating the problem of access to information within different types of libraries, we accept and even endorse the idea of differential service to special groups. Are educators of library science as prepared to endorse the idea of differentail service to social groups existing within a pluralistic society?

If we accept the assumption that different libraries give different services according to the different needs of user groups, we shall have to determine what are the needs for information among a variety of users, and apply our knowledge of these needs to the kind of library education we are giving our students.

Social pluralism can take a variety of forms, and the following list is in no way exhaustive even though all are entitled to special attention on the part of the practicing librarian:

Differences in educational and economic level may create social groups whose needs for library services can be widely different.

Differences in religious and traditional ethnic backgrounds require differential library services.

Politics and their surrounding ideology can be a highly divisive social force, demanding special adjustment of the library.

Societies expressing themselves in a multitude of different languages require a library solution in order to satisfy differential language needs.

Cultural and ethnic backgrounds have to be considered in the creation of library services, because services suitable to one group may not be acceptable, or congenial to another within the same national framework.

National or tribal affiliations will also require differential treatment if library services are to serve all members of the society.

Last but not least, current views and ideologies must also be taken into consideration, as their impact on the library and on the users can be central.

Some of the above mentioned items are obvious in most societies, but are not always identified as pluralism in the usual sense of the word, while all the above differences require differential approach to library services. For example, differences in economic power may not seem to be an attribute of a pluralistic society, but the demands made on the library are widely different: the well-to-do may require industrial and financial information which is of no use to the poorer strata, while information about civic rights, social security and job opportunities are more directly important for the poor than for the rich of the same community. Language and levels of literacy, religious and ideological variants, traiditons and national affiliations all require different types of services and of collection development. Language, being the major means of communication between people can become an important tool for cultural integration or assimilation, but can also guarantee that recorded cultural knowledge will be preserved in the library and when needed, propagated through it.

The plurality of languages within a society is worth special mentioning. While it is accepted that a language such as English be used supra-nationally to create understanding beyond language barriers and national frontiers, it is also important to remember that the imposition of the language of the majority on a minority group may become a divisive force as well as a unifying one.

One of the most exciting social phenomena is the cultural pluralism existing in many groups of human beings, in spite of a superficially common background, cultural differences which criss-cross society from within, can be observed as having an impact on ways by which different members of society develop rules of politeness and behavior that permit them to co-exist

within a certain social context. As cultural concepts are acquired in the course of socialisation by the individual, the differences emerging can be quite fundamental. Studies carried out on the social rules of children from different cultural and ethnic backgrounds in Israel showed for example, that the rules governing access to toys within a kindergarten class of middle-class or kibbutz children was prominently different from those evolved by Bedouin children and these again differed from those of a group of children from a mixed Muslim and Christian settlement.[1] If access to toys can already be different at kindergarten level, surely it is bound to affect attitudes later in life. If that is true, then library services should also reflect such cultural differences.

In Israel, where a number of cultural and religious sub-groups exist side by side, ideological considerations prevented secular libraries from carrying works of rabbinical literature on their shelves. This may partly explain why Jews from Arab countries, in North-Africa and in the Middle East failed to use and develop secular public libraries, in spite of a lengthy proto-library tradition which existed in their past lands of origin. Over a generation was to pass before Jews from Arab countries adapted to public library use and it is only during the eighties that the Arab population of Israel, both Moslem and Christian, has began to develop public libraries of a secular kind.[2] This trend, in turn, has depended to a large measure on the development of an Israeli-educated leadership, that is predominant in the network of local authorities and on a reader of an increasing academic and professional level.

Given such a cultural, economic and social diversity within a relatively small population, the librarians serving it must design the organisation of collections, services and human relations between patron and librarian accordingly. In today's terms the meaning of the concept "library" must go beyond the confines of written media such as books and periodicals, i.e. the provision of services traditionally considered to be the essence of librarianship and to encompass all the means of recording knowledge and recording information. Thus micro-forms, tape- and video recordings, films and on-line computer services must all be offered to the user so that the rights of choice, of browsing and of repeated reading may be fully available. Modern media, especially since the development of video-technology, offer people a variety of sources of information: TV, films, compact discs, etc., which are in essence similar to books. They may be "read and reread", browsed and watched whenever one wishes to, but it is important for the library to realise that if it ignores the existence of technological advances, the users will probably ignore the library.

What does all this imply for library education? First and foremost, the librarian must be made aware of the problems of pluralism which will affect library services. Once aware of the extent and types of differences among the people that the library is expected to serve, the librarian must be able to analyse the cultural, educational, economic and social diversity of the users. For example, a librarian serving a partly illiterate community must recognise that needs of those who can read only marginally must also be met, for they have equally urgent needs for information, entertainment and education. This is perforce different from serving the requirements of a literate, educated population. In order to fulfill its role, library education should be user-centered and not only technology-centered.

Minority groups in the religious or ethnic sense also require library services that may not be compatible with those planned for a "general public". Many aspects of the collection organised for a general public would be offensive to orthodox Jews and Moslems, while a collection organised solely according to the needs of a religious community would be overly restrictive and outside the interests of a larger readership. Even architectural considerations may not be "standard" in different communities: cultures which rigidly separate men and women in other spheres, would probably insist of separate libraries along sex-lines. Thus while full access to all shades of information may and should be preserved and accessible in

a large city-wide library *system,* the services given to a special community within the city or to a neighbourhood of a special nature would have to be tailored to fit the requirements of that particular type of patrons.

Computers are entering the lives of increasing numbers of people, and their use by libraries is gaining momentum. However, the mere availability of computer technology does not solve the problems of people lacking computer literacy. Rather, it may turn away from the highly technological library those members of society whose preferences lie with more traditional forms of information, such as books and periodicals, and who may embrace video-technologies while resisting computers and their uses.

In order to mitigate the effects of pluralism on society, the library student must be taught important social concepts such as "culture", "society" and "integration". A perusal of library school curricula tends to show, that basic social and cultural concepts are not given the same emphasis as library techniques such as cataloguing, classification, computer use and information retrieval. Even in the teaching of reference work, where the librarian is most closely in interaction with the user, social and cultural differences are too often not emphasised. The average graduate librarian may go through a complete study course without having had social science courses. New subjects such as information retrieval, statistics and research methods primarily deal with library material, not with library users. Management emphasises the administration of the library, but rarely deals with the adjustments necessary to serve out-of-the-ordinary patrons.

The curricula of library schools do not emphasise particularly courses dealing with interpersonal communication. It seems sometimes that aspects central to patterns of communications have been set aside in favor of courses dealing with technological programs and information retrieval.

Courses on the role of libraries in society, comparative librarianship and the history of library services in addition to basic notions of social sciences would prepare the library student to understand the patron, and not only the organisation of the collection. Moreover, an understanding of verbal and non-verbal communication within a society and among different social groups would pave the way to better service, as understanding the ideology of the user would enable the librarian to adapt his library to the needs of the community instead of attempting to fit the readership to the demands of a rigid library organisation. Incidentally, the study of verbal and non-verbal communication would make it easier for the practicing librarian to serve a variety of readerships in the course of a career, and would enable intelligent and professionally competent librarians to accept the demands of the users upon the resources and management of their community's library.

It seems logical in view of the above, that the aspiring librarians need to understand interpersonal communication and that the library school curriculum should either include courses in social science and in selected problems dealt with by sociologists and anthropologists or require a background in those areas as a prerequisite to admission. Any librarian serving a certain user-group, be it the users in a public library, or the students and faculty using academic and research libraries, must establish a rapport with the potential clientele. Understanding of verbal and non-verbal communication may help in establishing that rapport, and in overcoming the first difficulties in getting-to-know users. When the time comes for a particular library to assist those who will not easily become users, again the problem may be one of inadequate communication rather than lack of enthusiasm on the part of the librarian and the potential users. As communications are the basic instruments of the librarian, it seems ironic, and almost incredible that this discipline is not one of the requirements for a library degree.

The curricula of library schools are heavily slanted to teaching necessary library techniques, especially in computer science and information retrieval and dissemination. The people who are to benefit from this technology, the users, are less studied, and the result may be a gradual dissassociation between the user and the library. In spite of the additional burden of content social sciences and communications would place on the students and teachers of librarianship, knowing the user is as important and perhaps even more important than knowing all the ways of extracting information from the ubiquitous databases and information sources. If librarians were more in tune with their users they could contribute more to the development of new technologies which serve their public. Such a switch in priorities may require rethinking the problem of curricula and research in librarianship, but to this author it seems probable that unless the librarian knows the user and the nature of his needs all the technical skills of the librarian will be of little consequence to the community the librarian is supposed to serve.

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Each one an Individual: International Students in United States Library and Information Science Programs

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Abstract
This article describes the results of a study of the levels of international students' satisfaction with United States library and information science programs, based on dissertation research completed in the spring of 1990. The purpose of the study was to determine the level of satisfaction and what schools could do to improve the education and environment of international students. The results suggest while most international library and information science students place a high value on their U.S. educational opportunities, they are concerned about faculty lack of knowledge and interest in the international information scene. Demographic background of the students, outside of geographic origin, had very little influence on their levels of satisfaction.

This paper presents some of the results of the first national survey of international doctoral and master's students attending United States library and information science programs. The research was initiated to determine the level of satisfaction the students had with their academic programs and what schools could do to improve the educational environment of international students. One of the important parts of the study was the attempt to find factors from the academic programs, specifically those variables most likely to create problems, or the international students' demographic backgrounds which could be used to predict the students' levels of satisfaction.

Because of their reported enrollment of international Ph.D. and D.L.S. students in the 1989 Association of Library and Information Science Education Statistical Report,[2] seventeen schools were asked to allow their students to participate. Names of international students were actually solicited from the fifteen programs who had actively registered international doctoral students for the fall of 1989. From the names received, all international doctoral students and an equal number of international master's students randomly selected were sent a questionnaire. They were asked to rate their levels of satisfaction with their academic program on a five point scale ranging from no satisfaction to high satisfaction. The survey had a 60% overall response from the 226 questionnaires mailed with 114 questionnaires or 53% of the total used in the analysis.

T-tests, regression techniques, and descriptive statistics were used to analyze the students' answers. The questions on the survey instrument were separated into four general sections which became group variables: information received by the student before arrival; factors relating directly to the academic program such as academic performance, scheduling, satisfaction with classes and faculty; relevancy of education factors including allowable research done on topics relating to the student's own country; and support programs provided by the school or university such as computer skills instruction and English language tutoring. Four additional group variables were analyzed. One group variable consisted of aspects of the student's program under the student's control such as comfort factors with professors and other students, paricipation in class and other activities, and English language facility. A second variable included responses about aspects of the student's program not under the student's control such as quantity and type of assignments, methods of grading, steps to take in solving academic conflicts, advising and faculty interest. A third group variable covered

discrimination defined as treatment by faculty and student peers. The fourth extra group variable included satisfaction concerning personal English language skills covering comprehension, writing, and speaking. The students were moderately satisfied or higher with all eight of the group variables. They rated nine out of 58 individual variables or factors (15%) at levels below moderately satisfied.

Specifically, international students felt their faculties had a low level of interest in international professional information topics. They were less than satisfied about the faculty's level of knowledge about these topics and the international students' home country information environments. According to the students' indication of levels of satisfaction, the faculty also did not have enough knowledge about international student problems and were not perceived as encouraging class discussion about international information and library science topcis. In other areas, the students were less than moderately satisfied with the information they received before arrival about funding opportunities and faculty. They expressed some discomfort in participating in student organizations and desired stronger writing and counseling support programs.

To isolate factors which might be related to the international students' level of satisfaction with aspects of their academic program, three research questions were developed. The first research question asked: "Do students from different regions of the world have significant differences in their perceptions of satisfaction with United States library and information science educational programs?" Because of the low number of students representing most countries, they were divided into the following regions:

MIDDLE EAST–NORTH AFRICA: Iran, Morocco, Algeria, Saudi Arabia, Israel, Lebanon

SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA: South Africa (the two participants are black South Africans), Tanzania, Nigeria, Cameroon, Ethiopia

LATIN AMERICA-CARIBBEAN: Brazil, Venezuela, Puerto Rico, Dominican Republic, Jamaica, Chile, Guyana

EUROPE-NORTH ATLANTIC: Canada, Belgium, France, United Kingdom, Poland

ASIA-PACIFIC: Australia, People's Republic of China, Republic of China, Hong Kong, Thailand, Indonesia, Philippines, Burma, Korea, India, Sri Lanka

Even though unlikely combinations resulted, such as the Australian student with Chinese students, grouping was necessary to permit analysis through the computer program Statistical Package for the Social Sciences/PC+.

Students from Sub-Saharan Africa, although few in number, seem to have had a problem with some important facets of their programs, particularly the quality of information received about the curriculum before admission, comfort with student behavior in class, ease in participating in student organizations, and faculty support of a thesis topic relevant to home needs. The Asia-Pacific students had trouble participating in student organizations. The Latin America-Caribbean students were not satisfied with the quality of advising they received. The Middle East-North Africa students did not feel accepted as full academic partners with U.S. students. All students except the Europe-North Atlantic students were dissatisfied with faculty expertise on their home information environment. While rating them at levels above moderate satisfaction, students from different regions also gave significantly different responses to other factors:

- satisfaction with methods of resolving academic conflict
- speaking ability in English

- comprehension of English
- amount of time in program for practicum

The second research question asked: "Are there variables within the areas of information, past educational experience, relevance of education and school support programs that could predict which international students might have lower levels of satisfaction in certain areas of their academic programs?" The object of this question was to find out if any specific factor had a measurable influence on change in satisfaction with the academic program.

Two individual factors dealing with information received before arrival were found to influence change in satisfaction with the academic program. An increase or decrease in the level of satisfaction with the amount of information received on academic requirements and the amount of information received on funding would explain a corresponding 13.5% change in satisfaction with the academic group variable. Regionally, the Europe-North Atlantic students seemed to feel they needed more pre-admission information on U.S. funding possibilites than they had received.

Four factors from the relevancy of education questions were found to explain a 56.5% corresponding change in the level of satisfaction the students had for the academic group variable. Listed in order of importance in influencing change were the factors indicating course content fitting needs, faculty with expertise in the student's interest areas, amount of time availabe in the student's program for a practicum, and faculty expertise on the student's home information environment.

Finally, two factors under the support group explain a 26% corresponding change in the level of satisfaction for the academic group variable. These two factors are sufficient orientation by the school and sufficient school support for international organizations. Although the students rate both factors slightly above moderately satisfied in this study, the students from Sub-Saharan Africa and Latin America-Caribbean regions seem to have some problems with the orientation offered by the schools. Both rate the orientation level well below moderately satisfied. The students from Middle East-North Africa and Latin America-Caribbean also rate school support for international student organizations below moderately satisfied. However, the differences in means among all the regions are not significant.

The third research question asked "Are there variables in demographic categories other than country of origin which can be used to predict international students' level of satisfaction toward their library and information science program?" From the remaining demographic variables, only two factors, having a job waiting upon return home and identifying with a U.S. ethnic minority, had significant relationships. Those who had a job waiting (35 out of 110 answering the question) felt more confident about their personal English language skills scoring them higher than the students who did not have a job waiting. Those who identified with a U.S. ethnic minority (76 out of 111 students answering the question) were more concerned about discriminatory treatment. Black international students responded to the discrimination question by indicating low satisfaction. Because the sample for this section was very small, judgement should be carefully reserved. However, schools should recognize that some Black international students have strong feelings about the treatment they have received particularly from student peers while Asians and Hispanics indicated above average satisfaction.

In addition, these students expressed a lower level of satisfaction for the school or university's support programs. Among all the regions, the Hispanic students gave the lowest level of satisfaction to the support group of questions indicating poor satisfaction with the programs offered by the schools and universities. The Blacks and Asians rated their levels of satisfaction with the programs at slightly above moderately satisfied.

The number of trips taken abroad before the current educational experience proved to be an important factor to use in explaining differences in levels of satisfaction for the academic program questions (27%) and relevance of education questions (37%). The number of trips abroad combined with the factor of time spent in the U.S. this degree program explained 39% of differences in level of satisfaction with academic components under the student's control. The trips taken abroad factor combined with the number of courses taken and looking for a change in job factors explained 54% of the differences in level of satisfaction with personal English language skills.

Perhaps the most interesting result of the study was the lack of demographic and academic factors having significant effect on the levels of satisfaction felt by the students. Most of the relationships which were found did not involve major program factors. It did not matter whether students were at the master's level or doctoral level, male or female, married or not married, young or more mature, had children at home or in the United States or not at all, came from different religious beliefs, or did not intend to return home. Student responses, with the exceptions noted above, had no provable relationships with factors in their backgrounds or academic programs.

Not all students were entirely happy about each of the variables considered in the study. The following factors had thirty percent or more of the international students responding indicating negative satisfaction levels:

- faculty expertise in home country information environ. (63%)
- faculty knowledge about international student problems (50%)
- faculty interest in international topics (49%)
- home country topics being part of class discussions (45%)
- programs providing writing support (43%)
- comfort in participating in student organizations (42%)
- quality of information received on funding (42%)
- programs providing counseling support (41%)
- quality of information received on faculty (41%)
- programs in typing and word processing (36%)
- comfort in class participation (35%)
- faculty with expertise in student's interests (34%)
- availability of materials in library related to home country (32%)
- quality of information received on housing (31%)
- sufficient school orientation (31%)
- programs providing tutoring in English (30%)
- U.S. students treating international students equally with U.S. students (30%)

The open-ended questions provided a place for students to respond to questions asking why they came to the United States to study, what their greatest adjustment problem was, what U.S. programs provided which national or regional programs could not, and what their school could do for them to help ease their adjustment.

The students praised the quality and opportunities available to them through a U.S. education. They were excited about the technology and facilities, which did not seem to be available at national or regional programs. In addition, many of them specified their national and regional programs did not yet have Ph.D. programs. Students mentioned high standards, good research opportunities, high degreeed of development, hands-on technology, and strong training availibility. Others were influenced by teachers and friends trained in the U.S. Some students reported they did not have a choice of schools.

Language is still the greatest adjustment problem in spite of its not having a significant relationship with other factors or problem areas. Many students simply declared "Language!" Forty-one students, a large minority, wrote about some type of speaking, comprehension and writing difficulty. On the scaled questions 23 students were less than moderately satisfied with their speaking abilities, 13 with their comprehension abilites, 23 with tutoring programs in English, and 38 with writing support programs. Because of the lack of significant relationships, the conclusion cannot be reached that language problems overwhelm all other problems. They do, however, still play a significant part in the academic success for many students.

Other problems mentioned were concern with the lack of coverage of the international information arena. One student commented that "one is expected to think like an American. Professors assume we know a great deal more about American culture than we actually do." Another complained that "the real information problems of developing nations" were ignored.

The most frequent answers to the question asking what U.S. programs provided that programs did not in the student's own country or region included access to computer technology facilities, books, resources, "cutting-edge information," and research expertise. One student said that, "the United States puts effort, without any hesitation, in establishing the sound education environment, and that is something other countries can't compete with." Many students used this section to comment again on the lack of Ph.D. programs in their own countries.

The last question asked what was the most important thing a U.S. program could do to help ease adjustment problems. Students particularly wanted faculty to be more sensitive to international information problems. They wanted strenghtened English language tutoring, more frequent access to advisors who care, stronger orientation programs with closer connections to international student services offices, more information about courses offered, more financial assistance, consistent and continuous support, more international discussion in the classrooms, more emphasis on international topics in the research collections, more interchange and fellowship with American students, flexibility in courses, and an ombudsman to help with academic and cultural problems.

Greatest concern was expressed about the faculty in U.S. programs and the lack of apparent faculty interest in the students' international backgrounds, environment, and international information concerns. These problems give international students the impression that the U.S. is still isolationist in its view of the world's information needs. Students often perceive themselves as isolated from the educational objectives of their U.S. programs. The present environment will not change in any substantial way until faculty can develop more actively an international consciousness.

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Instructing the User or Improving the System: Research and User Feedback for Interactive Library Catalogues

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Abstract
Online catalogues have provided users with new opportunities for access to library materials. In spite of the apparent success of the electronic medium, the user has encountered a number of problems in searching the catalogue. To overcome these difficulties the librarian has concentrated on giving instruction and assistance on system use. This may have been regarded as a substitute for system improvement. Research approaches in the development of more intelligent interfaces and retrieval methods indicate a need for more user feedback. Librarians are in a good position to provide some of that knowledge. It is suggested that the library practitioner has an active role to play in the design process and in bridging the gap between research and application.

Introduction
The online catalogue has had a great impact on raising users' expectations in finding information. At the same time automation has also raised fundamental issues with regard to the function and effectiveness of the bibliographic tool. In response to this apparent discrepancy between the users' enthusiasm about the new technology and the technology not meeting their requirements, two strategies have been followed.

The first is based on the assumption that the searcher doesn't have the necessary skills to use the tool effectively and can be trained. The second recognizes that the burden cannot be put entirely on the user and that some improvements can be made to the system. We shall examine the relative merits of both of these approaches. That is to say, how the librarian has attempted to instruct or assist the user and how the researcher/designer has sought ways of improving the system.

Need for user assistance
From the beginning librarians have been concerned about user acceptance of the online catalogue, and in particular about its suitability for inexperienced or naive users. That concern was well founded, bearing in mind the profession's experience with online services over the previous decade and the consequent rise of "intermediaries" as a new breed of professionals. It was readily recognized that although OPACs were apparently more "user-friendly" than online information retrieval systems, nevertheless users would need some form of assistance.

The problems encountered by users have been classed by Borgman as being "procedural" or "conceptual" (1). The former relate to the mechanics of using the equipment including the correct use of the keyboard, choosing appropriate commands and generally finding one's way around the system. The latter refer to difficulties arising from not understanding how the system operates behind the screen, i.e. the user's conceptual model of the system.

It may be useful for our purposes to further differentiate those conceptual problems into:

(a) retrieval difficulties, such as the use of Boolean operators, distinguishing between phrase searching and keyword searching, and other search mechanisms or indexing policy,

(b) vocabulary problems in matching the system's language, or vice versa the system matching the user's language. The language difficulty is not just concerned with simply matching but also includes the user's inability to express his information need. This encompasses the more fundamental issue of how subject matter is indicated or described as opposed to the mechanics of searching by subject.

Characteristics of assistance

Help, assistance, instruction and training are some of the terms which have been used to express the general concept of providing support for the user. Hildreth (2) defines four characteristics or "dimensions" of user assistance: aim, locus, mode and invocation.

The aim is to overcome the problems encountered by users as discussed above. Hence the purpose or objectives of user assistance could be one or more of the following:

1. to assist with the use of the equipment itself and clarify the dialogue with the system
2. to assist with the retrieval task and mechanisms for finding useful material
3. to assist the user in expressing his information need and in matching the system's language

The locus of the assistance refers to its source. Help could be provided online or offline, in a printed form, formally in a training session, or informally by a librarian or friend.

With regard to the mode of assistance, this means interactive help as opposed to non-interactive help. Interactive help implies an immediate, positive, direct, and responsive form of help which focuses on a specific need at a specific point in the search process. Non-interactive help by contrast is indirect and provides background support on a more advisory or preventative basis.

The fourth characteristic is the method of invocation or of activating help. Either the user or the system could take the initiative. If the system takes the initiative, this could be invisible or transparent to the user, that is to say that given certain conditions help could be activated automatically unknown to the user. Alternatively help could be semi-automatic, whereby the searcher is offered assistance and his consent or participation is required to implement it.

Online provision of assistance

Although assistance can be provided offline through printed guides, tutorials or more informally by library staff, our main interest here is in online assistance. We shall now consider to what extent user instruction or assistance in current operational online catalogues meet the criteria which have been suggested above. In addition to error messages or screen prompts, most commercial second generation OPACs now offer a separate help facility which can be configured by the individual library. Libraries may also have the flexibility to specify other elements such as screen displays. This does put a substantial responsibility on the librarian to make wise decisions on behalf of the user. As yet there is no consensus or standards covering for example the data elements required in different bibliographic displays or the fields which should be indexed.

Likewise there is no guidance on the design or content of help screens. A help facility can consist of a dozen or so screens or an extensive parallel system in itself. Melvyl at the University of California had over 100 help screens. The OPAC at the Royal Library in Denmark has a facility with more than 250 discrete screens. Such a facility would include a full range of procedural as well as explanatory instruction. However comprehensive, these should not be

regarded as a substitute for clear, on the screen messages and informative displays at the interface itself.

A fair proportion of online assistance focuses on the retrieval mechanisms. This may explain boolean operators, keyword searching or the way search statements can be formulated. In addition to the explanatory approach, suggestions can also be put to the user concerning for example alternative ways of searching when an initial strategy produces an unsatisfactory result.

Providing direct assistance to tackle the conceptual problem of matching the system's language is proving to be much more difficult. At present a help facility can only suggest in a general way that the searcher try different terms. The burden is then put on the users to think up those new search terms for themselves.

The biggest impediment however may not be in the quality of limitation of the help on offer, but in the fact that on the whole users have shown a great reluctance to seek assistance in the first place, whether online or offline. This may be due to the fact that they don't realize that they are having difficulties. It is also possible that having found that assistance was not relevant on a previous occasion, they then prefer to depend on their own resources. Another possibility is that by the time they do call up help it may be too late to have any effect. On the other hand it may be that learning by experimentation or trail and error is more effective. Whatever the reasons, there is a general indication that users, if they do resort to seeking help, prefer online, brief, interactive, point of need assistance as opposed to offline, extensive, general, formal instruction.

Surprisingly little research has been reported on the different methods or requirements for instructing users on the use of the online catalogue. One major project at Northwestern University produced inconclusive results (3). A group of students who received instruction in a one hour workshop performed marginaly better than a group who was given a brief printed guide. However a control group who received no instruction at all performed better than those who had read the guide!

What to teach, how and where has not been resolved. One of the researchers pointed out: "One of the most important functions of the user interface is to provide procedural training. In fact it is suggested that these techniques might be more easily acquired from instruction embedded in the system, once a conceptual model has been learned." This raises the question whether the users can be trained to develop a correct model of the system outside the system per se, or should the system enable a user to acquire a conceptual model through using the system itself, i.e. through interaction not only at the interface but within the search process.

Although online help facilities attempt to offer procedural, retrieval and conceptual assistance they appear to function more as an online version or implementation of the non-interactive offline methods and consequently suffer from the same limitations.

Improving the system

The alternative approach to dealing with the difficulties encountered by users is to tackle the problem from the system end. Recent developments at the interface have tended to concentrate on the repesentation and procedural levels. Graphic devices such as windows, pointers and form filling templates as well as colour have seemingly made OPACs easier to use or at least more attractive. However improvements on the retrieval and conceptual aspects have been explored only in a few experimental systems.

Retrieval aids

Retrieval based on the "best match" principle all too often results in failed searches or too many items retrieved. Current interfaces on online catalogues do not encourage users to

exploit available search options or facilities to limit or expand their searches. For example few users make use of Boolean operators, perhaps not surprisingly. They do not follow up keyword searches for related references through class numbers or subject headings.

New retrieval techniques are being developed in a prototype system called OKAPI as part of an extensive programme on OPAC research funded by the British Library Research and Development Department over the last five years (4, 5). These retrieval aids include some sophisticated automatic search sequencing mechanisms whereby Boolean operations can be carried out on different combinations of search terms. The system can thus retrieve not only records which contain all of the terms in a query (exact match) but also those which contain some of the terms (partial match). A term weighting algorithm then allows for records to be displayed in rank order with the best match first. To improve recall a second version OKAPI'86 introduced automatic stemming or truncation, cross-reference tables and spelling corrections. All of these operations are carried out behind the screen and invisible to the user.

A third version of the system is testing query expansion through relevance feedback. The user is invited to indicate which reference in a retrieved set is most useful. The system then automatically reformulates the query and seeks more references on the basis of the user's relevance judgements.

Some forms of these innovative features are starting to be introduced in commercial systems. For example Libertas has adopted OKAPI's combinational technique for partial matching. Other systems are explicitly offering the user the facility to link relevant items directly to other references with the same subject headings, class numbers or authors.

These retrieval aids are not only attempting to circumvent the drawbacks of Boolean searching but are also seeking to enlist the user's assistance so that the system can carry out a search in a more "intelligent" way.

Contextual aids

In addition to improving the matching mechanisms another way of assisting users is to provide "contextual" help, i.e. new suggestions or alternatives to their own vocabulary. The system could help translate the user's language into the system's language by placing the query in a subject context. The searcher would then have the opportunity to reformulate the query and position it in a broader/narrower/related subject field.

Two projects in progress are attemtping to introduce subject authority control online, so that preferred and related terms can be made available. The first will integrate LCSH assigned headings in bibliographic records with the LC subject authority file (6). For headings selected by the user, cross-references will be displayed to lead to more specific, broader or related headings.

A second study uses PRECIS as a basis for online thesaural control and browsing facility (7). User entered terms are matched with the PRECIS file which leads to preferred terms and cross-reference information.

The possibilities of using classification structure online has also been explored in a major study. The Dewey Decimal Classification Project (8) integrated classification schedules and the relative index to enrich the system's vocabulary and to relate user search terms to class numbers. From the latter subject perspectives or contexts could be displayed revealing the hierarchical structure of the classification from which the user could broaden or narrow a search.

These contextual aids could be particularly useful to users who have a conceptual problem in expressing their information need.

Future directions

The move towards more intelligent interfaces and retrieval methods and the need to provide more interactive, integrated, real time user assistance clearly can no longer be easily demarcated. Although user instruction has been the responsibility of the practitioner and the researcher/designer has been responsible for system development, a closer partnership is desirable and indeed inevitable.

To meet the common objective of assisting the user, collaboration could be initiated in two ways. Firstly new features in prototype experimental systems need to be rigorously tested in operational settings with real users having real information needs. Secondly the evaluation of existing operational systems including help facilities designed by librarians should be undertaken on a wider scale to obtain more and reliable user feedback for future system design specifications.

Current research at the Centre for Interactive Systems Research at City University in London, includes the evaluation of the OKAPI prototype as an operational system in the university library. Another project is concerned with the development of software which could be used by practitioners as a diagnostic or monitoring tool to collect data on user behaviour at the catalogue (9). The programme consists of a screen logging facility as a front end which can be combined with an online questionnaire.

Ultimately the best way to assist the user is to improve the system. The library practitioner could have an active role to play in the design of online catalogues. Perhaps more importantly the library profession must set the standards on the basis of user needs and requirements, and then ensure that system developers and vendors meet those standards.

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La investigación Bibliotecológica en México: por qué, y para qué

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Resumen
La investigación en Bibliotecológía es una necesidad y una obligación en cada país.

Muchos esfuerzos en diferentes programas bibliotecarios se pierden porque los bibliotecarios desconocen la situación real, causas y efectos de un problema específico.

Muchas veces nos hemos cuestionado, primero el por qué y para qué de la investigación en bibliotecología y luego el por qué y para qué de hacerlo en México.

La investigación bibliotecológica puede responder a dos situaciones: la necesidad urgente de resolver un problema que afecta a cierta comunidad, o la necesidad de dar solución a inquietudes propias de la investigación, para conocer causas y efectos del fenómeno, o el origen y desarrollo de una conducta, de un usuario, de una organización, de la información en sí.

En Bibliotecología como en muchas áreas podemos hablar de investigación teórica y aplicada, y este proceso y su sistematización y ha empezado a dar con una dedicación de tiempo completo, que representa un reto para México.

El extraordinario desarrollo de la información impresa en el siglo pasado y principios del presente, ha sido superado grandemente por los descubrimientos científicos y avances técnicos y han propiciado otras posibilidades para obtener y ofrecer información, ya sea por la variedad de los medios en los que se representa esta información, como las instituciones y organismos que tienen como elemento de trabajo la información y las disciplinas que inciden en su estudio.

Si bien esta realidad debe tomarse en cuenta por los investigadores y los estudiosos de la información y la bibliotecología, también es importante tener presente que el motor que impulsa la recuperación y uso del conocimiento, no importando la gran variedad de usos y usuarios ha sido y es aún en nuestros días la Biblioteca.

Bajo el término común de biblioteca se engloba el uso de las nuevas – tecnologías, métodos y técnicas, aunque la etimología de la palabra ya resulte desactualizada, sin embargo, mientras el objetivo de satisfacer las necesidades de información de los usuarios, esté vigente y se logre de óptima manera, de esa misma forma estará vigente la Biblioteca.

La Biblioteca representa el ámbito democrático que nos permite ejercer uno de los derechos fundamentales del hombre: el saber lo que todos – los demás expresan, más allá de la espesa problemática derivada de la dependencia y monopolios económicos, políticos y culturales que ejercen su predominio en cada época.

La tecnología nos borra fronteras, nos acerca países, nos pone al alcance de la mano toda la información requerida, la de uso público y privado; pero los intereses políticos comerciales y de Estado y las limitaciones económicas entre otros aspectos en realidad producen el efecto contrario, he ahí el gran reto de las Bibliotecas de hoy.

La Bibliotecología es la disciplina que estudia el uso de la información, su organizasión, el comportamiento de la información y de los – usuarios de ésta y todos los aspectos que inciden

en esta problematica, además del o los organismos que realicen estas actividades u otras que conlleven al uso de la información y la satisfacción de estas necesidades.

Habitualmente a la Bibliotecología la agrupamos con las disciplinas consideradas en el área de las ciencias sociales, en nuestros días estas disciplinas son afectadas y modificadas por otras disciplinas que les permiten cuantificar, y evaluar con modelos matemáticos los hechos bibliotecarios, así como adecuarse al manejo rápido y exacto de grandes volúmenes de información, esto es un reflejo de lo que sucede actualmente en el área de las ciencias sociales donde es muy común el uso de las matemáticas, las estadísticas y la computación.

Estoy segura que muchas veces nos hemos cuestionado, primero el por qué y para qué investigar dentro de la bibliotecología y después por qué y para qué hacerlo en México.

En la Bibliotecología podemos dedicarnos al estudio de aspectos teóricos que a largo plazo permitan, en un momento dado, modificar los enfoques y los propios postulados vigentes, generalmente, por la ley de la tradición.

La investigación bibliotecológica puede responder a dos situaciones: a la urgencia de darle respuesta a un problema que afecta a una comunidad determinada, o a problemas que se plantea el propio investigador con el fin de profundizar sobre causas y consecuencias de un hecho, o de buscar el origen y comportamiento de una teoría sobre el usuario, la información, la organización, etcétera. Por lo que, en la Bibliotecología como en otras áreas se puede hablar de investigación básica y – aplicada.

La investigación básica incluye estudios que nos llevan al análisis – exhaustivo y al entendimiento profundo de un fenómeno, al llevar a cabo esta investigación no tenemos que preocuparnos por si el descubrimiento será aplicado o no. El estudio se emprende para adquirir un conocimiento que se enriquezca a sí mismo.

La investigación básica, llamada también pura o teórica, fundamentalmente se deriva de problemas intelectuales que frecuentemente por su originalidad generan nuevos conocimientos.

La investigación aplicada es pragmática, sus propósitos son más específicos y predeterminados al inicio, por lo general con el fin de resolver problemas prácticos o de descubrir un nuevo conocimiento que pueda ser utilizado inmediatamente.

Los resultados de una investigación básica pueden ser aplicados en la solución de problemas prácticos o ser utilizados como antecedentes de otros estudios. Estos resultados se incorporan al cuerpo general del conocimiento, algunas veces la diferencia entre investigación básica y aplicada no es fácil, especialmente en áreas jóvenes que están en proceso de construir una teoría, como es la Bibliotecología.

Cada día se hace más urgente la necesidad de conocer el por qué y el cómo del acontecer bibliotecario en nuestro país. El progreso y el impulso de muchas áreas de la bibliotecología se han visto limitados por la falta de una investigación adecuada y eficiente que nos ofrezca los elementos necesarios para fundamentar la creación o el cambio.

La Bibliotecología debe explorar nuevos enfoques y métodos que sean – aplicables a los diferentes aspectos de esta disciplina; estos nuevos enfoques requerirán de imaginación y originalidad basados en preceptos firmes y comprobados que se analizarán objetiva y cuidadosamente.

El momento que vivimos se caracteriza por rápidos cambios tecnológicos que nos llevan a nuevas soluciones de viejos problemas, al aplicar métodos científicos que enriquezcan el conocimiento bibliotecológico, a través de la experimentación, la encuesta, la investigación histórica, la investigación de operaciones y la aplicación de métodos cuantitativos.

El campo de estudio es muy amplio si queremos investigar aspectos teóricos y problemas prácticos propios de las bibliotecas y centros de información, como son adquisición, catalogación, almacenamiento y diseminación de la información; así mismo del cómo, del para qué y

para quién se genera la información, su comportamiento y medios de comunicación.

Ante esta situación la Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México consideró necesario que la bibliotecología contara con un espacio y personalidad propios dentro de un programa de investigación, con esta finalidad el 14 de diciembre de 1981 se creó el Centro Universitario de Investigaciones Bibliotecológicas.

Con la creación de este Centro se inicia el proceso de sistematización de la investigación bibliotecológica y se conforma un ente crítico que se dedica a las actividades de investigación de tiempo completo.

El Centro se preocupó desde sus inicios por ver a la Bibliotecología en su concepción más amplia, más allá de los estantes, más allá del recinto de la Biblioteca, verla como una disciplina que tiene como finalidad el conocimiento de la información, de los materiales en que se – representa, de los servicios que propicien su uso, de la tecnología y – metodología para hacerla accesible, del usuario destinatario de esta información y por supuesto de la biblioteca o recinto en el cual se – puede hacer uso de ella.

El objetivo principal es realizar investigación bibliotecologica que ayude a la solución de problemas nacionales relacionados directamente con las bibliotecas y centros de información del país y proporcionar apoyo indirecto a la educación, la investigación, la producción, la administración y la difusión de la cultura.

Entre sus funciones el Centro tiene, además de investigar, la de apoyar programas de formación de personal académico y de investigación de alto nivel, difundir el conocimiento bibliotecológio y, asesorar y propiciar programas de investigación con instituciones nacionales y extranjeras, así como apoyar desde el punto de vista metodológico programas bibliotecológicos útiles y prioritarios para la UNAM y para la república.

Las áreas de investigación que cubre el CUIB son:

a) *Filosofía bibliotecológica.* Las investigaciones en esta área están dirigidas a la conformación de fundamentos científicos y teóricos de la bibliotecología.

b) *Educación en bibliotecología.* En esta área se abordan problemas – teóricos y los derivados del proceso enseñanza-aprendizaje de la bibliotecología con especial énfasis en las experiencias nacionales.

c) *Historia de la bibliotecología.* Su ámbito de estudio está dirigido a rescatar y sistematizar los hechos históricos que han influido en la conformación de la bibliotecología como una rama del conocimiento.

d) *Desarrollo de colecciones.* En esta área se abordan los problemas relacionados con la conformación de los acervos. Su ámbito de estudio incluye, entre los aspectos más importantes, la selección, descarte, uso y evaluación del costo beneficio de los acervos documentales.

e) *Análisis y sistematización de la información documental.* Las investigaciones en esta área están relacionadas con el estudio de los sistemas lógico-matemáticos utilizados para la organización de información documental, y están dirigidas al análisis de los factores cualitativos que influyen en la interpretación y transcripción de la información a códigos convencionales como: catálogos, tesauros, sistemas de clasificación, vocabularios controlados y bases de datos. Abarca diversos aspectos que tienen un denominador común: comprender los fenómenos que se presentan en torno al almacenamiento y recuperación de información documental, como es el estudio de:

Catalogación, orientada a estudiar los sistemas para la descripción documental y a explicar sus finalidades.

Classificación y lenguajes documentales, se ocupa del estudio de la descripción de contenidos temáticos; vinculado al desarrollo de conceptos teóricos y sistemas lógicos, que permitan comprender y manejar los elementos cualitativos y semánticos que influyen en la interpretación y descripción del contenido de un documento, para representarlo por medio de resúmenes o categorías temáticas.

Normatividad, estudia el objeto y la función de las normas para la organización de documentos, bibliotecas y sistemas de información.

f) *Tecnología y sistemas automatizados.* Su ámbito de estudio es la automatización junto con las telecomunicaciones y la tecnología que se genera, que puede ser aplicable a las actividades bibliotecológicas y de información a fin de favorecer modificaciones, innovaciones y nuevas possibilidades. Este aspecto se estudia, también, desde un enfoque social en cuanto a los niveles de impacto y transformación, así como la relación con el uso de la información.

g) *Industria editorial.* Se investiga sobre los problemas de las publicaciones desde su generación hasta su distribución, a fin de buscar explicaciones que permitan comprender y conformar alternativas para un aprovechamiento óptimo de esta fuente de información. Esta área se inició con el estudio de las publicaciones oficiales.

h) *Legislación bibliotecaria.* Estudia la normatividad jurídica que rige a las bibliotecas, sistemas bibliotecarios, al flujo y uso de la información y a la tecnología de apoyo en sus ámbitos local, nacional e internacional.

i) *Hábitos de lectura.* Aborda los problemas de lectura de la población mexicana y se busca la formulación de alternativas que influyen en los hábitos de lectura.

j) *Usuarios.* En esta área se abordan estudios dirigidos a conocer y explicar las características, necesidades y comportamientos de diversos tipos de usuario, en relación con el uso de información y servicios bibliotecarios. El objetivo de esta área es lograr conocimientos para adecuar los servicios bibliotecarios y de información a la realidad del usuario mexicano.

k) *Organización y función bibliotecaria.* Su campo de acción es el estudio de los problemas concernientes a la estructura, funcionamiento y variables que afectan el desarrollo de las bibliotecas; también se estudia su papel en la sociedad, con el propósito de comprender y buscar explicaciones y alternativas propias a la realidad nacional. Actualmente se estudian bibliotecas universitarias y bibliotecas públicas.

Todas estas áreas están a cargo de investigadores especialistas en cada una de ellas.

En la medida en que se conforma la plantilla de personal, se impulsan y desarrollan las áreas de investigación que previamente se han detectado como prioritarias.

Hasta la fecha contamos con 15 investigadores de tiempo completo que a su vez reciben apoyo externo de especialistas en otras disciplinas cuando la relación interdisciplinaria lo demanda; y personal de apoyo en – biblioteca, automatización, trabajo editorial y logística docente y de difusión.

En el aspecto de personal es conveniente destacar dos aspectos: el reclutamiento y el entrenamiento.

Si bien es conocido por todos que México es un país con pocos bibliotecarios, en proporción a las necesidades y la demanda real y potencial, es también común enfrentar la realidad de que hay muy pocos bibliotecarios con experiencia y trayectoria en la investigación bibliotecológica. En general, el bibliotecario profesional se ve asediado por ofertas de trabajo relacionadas con el servicio y agobiado por las demandas de sus usuarios, los bibliotecarios que se dedican a la investigación lo hacen generalmente por satisfacción personal, no como modus vivendi. Con la creación del CUIB, nace la posibilidad de contar con investigadores de tiempo completo que se integran a un proceso creativo e innovador. En este momento forman parte del personal de la UNAM, quienes no son necesariamente experimentados investigadores, por lo que además de detectar a los profesionistas interesados y calificados en la investigación, se tuvo que emprender la tarea de apoyar a los ya formados y propiciar la formación de cuadros nuevos, para lo cual se cuenta con un programa permanente de superación académico que incluye cursos de metología de la investigación y otras especialidades de apoyo como estadística, automatización y tecnología educativa entre otras.

Tanto para apoyar las investigaciones en proceso, como la actualización y formación de investigadores contamos con una biblioteca que está desarrollando una colección de monografías, publicaciones periódicas, teses, folletos, recortes de periódico y un archivo de la palabra en bibliotecología. La colección cubre principalmente bibliotecología, archivología, informática, computación, administración y educación.

También vale la pena destacar la formación de una colección bibliotecológica latinoamericana y el inicio del análisis de la información contenida en estos materiales, así como, la formación del banco de datos correspondientes.

Esta colección y la de instituciones afines está al servicio de nuestros investigadores a través del trabajo desarrollado por tres bibliotecarios profesionales.

Para apoyar la actividad de la biblioteca y las investigaciones que se realizan en el Centro se cuenta con un Departamento de Computación.

Las investigaciones han generado productos desde los primeros meses de operación ya que, cada investigador realiza mesas redondas sobre el tema en que trabaja con el fin de propiciar el diálogo entre especialistas del área, y en algunas ocasiones pueden difundirse los resultados a través de publicaciones sencillas como son los Cuadernos de tópicos específicos. También cada investigador organiza un curso de actualización sobre el tema investigado con el fin de difundir, entre los bibliotecarios interesados, los hallazgos obtenidos en el proceso de la investigación realizada.

Además cuando la investigación se concluye y los resultados lo ameritan se tiene la posibilidad de publicarla; en relación con esta actividad editorial, cada investigador produce dos artículos al año.

Tanto las mesas redondas, como los cursos y las publicaciones forman – parte de las actividades de difusión del concimiento bibliotecológico universal y mexicano.

El Centro tiene relaciones de asesoría y colaboración tanto con dependencias de la UNAM como con otros organismos nacionales y extranjeros.

Un lugar especial en estas relaciones lo tienen las escuelas de bibliotecología del país, ya que uno de los programas del Centro es vincular la investigación con la docencia y apoyar a las escuelas tanto en la docencia propiamente, como con los productos de la investigación que en muchos casos son material de lectura para los estudiantes.

Algunas de nuestras investigaciones todavía en proceso ya han despertado la atención del sector público somo son el Censo de Bibliotecas Universitarias cuyos resultados la Subsecretaría de Enseñanza Superior de la S.E.P. ha utilizado. La de Bibliotecas Públicas que complementará los estudios que realiza la propia S.E.P., y el Estudio sobre la Clasificación de la Biblioteca Nacional de Medicina que ha despertado tanto el interés de la Secretaría de Salud

como el de la propia Biblioteca Nacional de Medicina que nos otorgó el permiso para la traducción de las tablas, mismas que formarán parte de este estudio.

El trabajo del CUIB se ha conocido en otros países y con ellos interacciona para fomentar y desarrollar investigación bibliotecológica, como ejemplo podemos citar: Perú, Colombia, Venezuela, República Dominicana, Cuba, Guatemala, Costa Rica, etc.

Este interés regional ha propiciado la colaboración y el apoyo de la Organización de Estados Americanos mediante el cual se pudo establecer a partir de 1984 un programa latinoamericano de formación de investigadores en bibliotecología; y del Gobierno de Francia para la formación de especialistas en información bibliográfica automatizada; también hay programas con el Consejo Británico y USIS, U.S. Information Service.

El CUIB se ha preocupado por: formar sus cuadros académicos, crear una infraestructura metodológica y técnica que origine un desarrollo propio de la bibliotecología en México, que mejore los servicios bibliotecarios del país, que a su vez satisfaga las necesidades de información del mexicano, sin descuidar el compromiso que nuestro país tiene con latinoamérica y apoyo a los países de la región en la planificación y diseño de programas de investigación bibliotecológica locales.

El espectro bibliotecológico es muy amplio, el CUIB empieza a descubrirlo, a conocerlo, a disfrutarlo, empezamos a tener los primeros frutos, ya estamos aportando soluciones en algunas áreas, pero apenas es el comienzo, tenemos mucho que hacer todavía, el futuro nos demanda todo nuestro trabajo y entusiasmo, no nada más a los bibliotecarios que somos parte importante del CUIB, sino a todos los que participan y viven de esta profesión.

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Scholars seek Information
Information-Seeking Behaviour and Information Needs of Humanities Scholars

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Abstract

A study sponsored by NORDINFO, the Nordic Council for Scientific Information and Research Libraries, is reported. The object of the explorative investigation was to study the information-seeking behaviour and information needs of scholars in the humanities from a holistic perspective.

The method of focused interviewing was adopted for the collection of data due to the few research results available in this subject area. 64 people randomly selected according to specific criteria from the five Nordic countries, i.e. Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Norway and Sweden, were interviewed.

The results of the investigation show that the scholars in the humanities do not have a homogeneous information-seeking behaviour or homogeneous information needs. Variations from discipline to discipline can be seen; especially scholars doing research in linguistics or languages behaved differently in the humanities.

Compared to other information channels the research libraries, as expected, turned out to be of greatest importance for scholars seeking information and printed materials for their research. But they also bought literature privately rather extensively. Differences in the dependence on library collections could be seen. It varied according to discipline, mature or immature scholar, or the local library infrastructure. In this study, in general, the differences in information-seeking behaviour turned out to be most marked between mature and immature scholars. The use of book collections depended on the physical distance between the user and the collections. Of all categories of research libraries, the department libraries were the most important, but special libraries were also appreciated.

The study showed that what subject search for a scholar means, in most cases, is looking up individual names of persons, e.g. author of a book or journal article, or searching for information about a person, e.g. an artist or philosopher. The scholars used bibliographies to a rather small extent, i.e. their bibliographical awareness was rather low.

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1. Introduction

In the late 1970's and 1980's there was a great interest in the information gathering and information-seeking behaviour of humanities scholars. It can be said that the interest in this field of research actually started in 1966 with the investigation of the information needs of historians that the *American Historical Association* had conducted (PERMAN 1968). In England the *Centre for Research On User Studies* started the *Humanities Information Research Programme,* which produced five reports *(CORKILL 1977; CORKILL 1978; CORKILL 1981; STONE 1983; STONE 1985).* A number of citation studies in different humanities disciplines have also been done *(VAUGHAN 1959; JONES 1972; HEINZKILL 1980; STIEG 1981; STERN 1983; CULLARS 1985; BUDD 1986; BROADUS 1987).*

In 1985 NORDINFO, the Nordic Council for Scientific Information and Research Libraries, initiated an investigation into the information-seeking behaviour and information needs of scholars in the humanities in the Nordic countries. A report was published in 1988 (LÖNNQVIST 1988). This paper deals mainly with this study.

2. The object of the study

The object of this explorative study was to cast light on the methods used by scholars for gathering information and their information needs. The intention was to find out how the scholars seek information and to what extent they use existing library and information services as well as their need for new services.

3. The selection of disciplines to be represented in the study

The humanities is a very wide field, and one whose scope has been much discussed. For this study a pragmatic definition was adopted. The selection was made among those disciplines represented at the Nordic universities, and more specifically at 15 major universities. Characteristic of all these is that a great number of humanities disciplines are represented at their faculties of arts.

In this study the following disciplines have been considered major humanities disciplines, here enumerated in alphabetical order: Archaeology, Ethnology and Folklore, Philosophy, History, Art History, Literature, Music, Science of Religion and Languages / Linguistics.

4. Methodology

The method of *focused interviewing* was adopted for the collection of data due to the few results available in this subject area. 64 people randomly selected according to specific criteria, from the five Nordic countries, i.e. Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Norway and Sweden, were interviewed. The interviewed subjects were divided into four categories: *1) mature scholars, 2) young academic lecturers/scholars, 3) mature students, and 4) users of information services in the humanities who were not working in universities or colleges, i.e. researchers working in archives, museums etc., civil servants, amateur researchers, newspaper journalists, translators etc.* The division of the interviewed persons into these categories was based on an assumption that the differences in information-seeking behaviour and information needs would lie between these groups.

The method of qualitative subject analysis was used to analyze the interview data. The emphasis was laid upon trends an patterns in the material.

5. Mature and immature scholars

The analysis of the interview data showed that it was necessary to introduce one more categorization. Some of the scholars in category 2, young academic lecturers/scholars, were young in years but at the same time mature in experience, i.e. their scholarly production was large and they had fairly well developed informal network. Also, to be able to explain the results, it was necessary to introduce the categories *mature* and *immature* scholars. The differences in information–seeking behaviour turned out to be most marked between these two groups.

The criterion of a mature scholar is that he or she has a *large scholarly production*. In addition the person may have a well developed informal network. The scholarly production was considered large if it consisted of *at least two monographs and 10 journal articles/conference papers*. If this criterion was not met, the scholar was considered immature.

6. The role of the institutions in informationgathering by scholars

In the study as a whole emphasis laid upon the role of the research libraries in the information gathering of the scholars. The archives and the museums could not, however, be totally neg-

lected because they are very important to some groups of scholars. Those researchers who used archival material, for example historians, ethnologists, folklorists and some literature researchers, considered the archives more difficult to use and more important than the research libraries. For research literature there are alternative acquisition channels but not for archival material.

Several scholars who used archival material wanted more efficient retrieval systems. They were not satisfied with the level of service in the archives, which were considered to be bureaucratic, slow and inflexible.

Museum collections were used by those interviewed subjects who represented disciplines within which artefacts are important research material, e.g. archaeologists and ethnologists. It was of great importance to these researchers to be able to penetrate the collections of museums and to visit exhibitions. In particular the exhibition catalogues seemed to cause great problems to the scholars. One of the most important ways to announce archaeological excavation results is to do it through exhibitions of rather short duration. The catalogues of the artefacts in these exhibitions are scholarly valuable but are published in small editions. It is therefore difficult to get hold of them if you are in Scandinavia and do not have the opportunity to visit the exhibitions. In getting this material colleagues in Italy were of great help, but also some special libraries, like the Swedish and German Rome Institutes, which follow and acquire this kind of material, are truly difficult to find.

The interviews showed that the public research libraries played the greatest role in the information gathering of the scholars compared to other information channels. But they also bought literature privately to a rather significant extent. The most central literature in their own research field they bought privately to be able to always have it close at hand. Most of them subscribed to the most important journals. The language and linguistics scholars were, however, not as dependent on libraries as the scholars in other humanities disciplines. For them other information channels also played a significant role.

Variations in library dependence could be seen; these depended on what discipline the scholar represented, the scholar's status as mature or immature scholar, and the local library infrastructure. Here the local library infrastructure means the pattern of different types of research libraries on the local level and the physical distance between these libraries.

The physical distance to collections turned out to be of great importance to the use of them by the researchers in their information gathering. The results of the investigation clearly showed that the scholar in general first seeks information in his immediate environment, beginning with his own private library, if he has one. Then he consults the department library, the special library (which can be abroad), the local multidisciplinary research library, other multidisciplinary research libraries in the country, and last, multidisciplinary research libraries abroad.

Department libraries turned out to be of special importance to the scholars' information gathering. Their collections are built up systematically by the researchers themselves and thus have a profile adjusted to the group of researchers and teachers using the library. It can therefore be said that they actively influence the information the library offers. According to the interview answers department libraries seem to form the basis for the information gathering of scholars, i.e. those who are assigned to universities and colleges where de facto most humanities research is done.

Special libraries were also very much appreciated by the interviewed subjects, especially if the libraries have set their ambition on having almost complete collections in their field. University libraries and other large research libraries were mostly used for document supply from other libraries and for reading journals.

Other information channels than the institutional, in particular the informal network, were

important in research fields where there was a need to obtain information fast. If the research topic was very internationally oriented, the importance of an informal network increased, especially abroad. In general the interviewed subjects considered the institutions to lack prospects for fast information supply and transmission.

7. Information–seeking

One of the key questions in the investigation was subject search, i.e. how the researcher seeks information about a specific topic. Most of the interviewed subjects did not understand the term "subject search" and the question "How do you use the library to seek information about a specific topic?" These questions seemed irrelevant to them. The term and the question had to be explained.

Common answers were that they had not needed to start from zero. In most cases they knew the name of an author or another person and sought literature written by or about this person. From the text they got references to research material in which a specific thought or a problem was developed. Once these items were available, new references were received:

> "(...) it becomes a chain of references extending in all directions".

To have just a topic to seek information about was an unfamiliar initial state for most of the interviewed subjects. A mature scholar said that he

> "(...) is not at all interested in everything that has been written about a subject but just what is relevant to me at that particular time. In general I am interested in the answers of some particular scholars and scholarly schools to specific questions. I am almost always interested in the opinion of only one scholarly school or line."

This scholar took as an example the question. "What is art?" He was not interested in every answer to the question. He sought "research-oriented" literature but sometimes also the literature of whole schools. He said he was dealing with problem-oriented research and he knew the researchers doing this kind of research in his field. Thus he was interested in everything they wrote and published. To him subject search to a great extent meant seeking in particular previously known names of researchers. To a range of other interviewed subjects subject search had the same meaning. Another mature scholar described his "subject search" in the following way. When he started to work on a new project, a new topic, it had been preceded by a very long process. He had, for example, five years ago delivered a speech on the topic to a large audience or a short paper on a seminar or a scholarly congress. Then his interest in the topic had grown more and more through literature he had read for another research project. The material on this "new" topic grew all the time side by side with other research. When he then started to work on the new topic he had already collected a rather comprehensive body of research material as by-products of the literature search for a previous research work. Thus there was no need to seek literature on the topic from zero.

From the above described examples we can conclude that

1. To the humanities scholar subject search most often means seeking already known names of researchers or names of persons dealt with (artists, authors etc.).
2. To the humanities scholar information-seeking means a very long process. He continuously fills up his "knowledge bag" which he carries with him throughout his life as a researcher. It is never empty, except for a student or a beginner, but is growing in size all the time. At the same time new pigeon holes are added with connections to already existing pigeon holes. This "knowledge bag" is indispensable to the scholar.

8. Two main types of information-seeking

The interviewed subjects turned out to do comprehensive subject searches very rarely, hardly ever. The results of the study indicate the existence of *two main types of information-seeking* among humanities researchers. *Firstly*, when the scholar is *familiar with the subject,* the information-seeking is conducted in a specific way, and *secondly,* when the *subject is new,* it is conducted in a different way. The way in which the scholar searches for information is dependent on his or her previous experience or knowledge of the subject. In both ways of information-seeking, chain searching constitutes an important element and sometimes is the only way in which the researcher seeks information. Chain searching means that one reference gives several new references and that these are evaluated in a context.

Information-seeking when one is familiar with the subject means that the scholar has gathered references to literature on the subject over a long period of time. In such cases he does not start from zero but uses his "knowledge bag", and the references he has gathered previously in connection with other research projects. Chain searching also plays an important role. Bibliographies and reference lists of books and journal articles lead the researcher to an almost endless chain of references, which extends in all directions. It is a question of choosing the right direction, and above all the right track. Those are some of the greatest skills demanded of the humanities researcher when seeking information, skills which he himself has to possess. He derives little help from the librarian or the information specialist in this information-seeking process where information from journals and colleagues is valued highly. Bibliographical tools are hardly used at all. If they are used, they are used to check that no important material has been overlooked.

Mainly mature scholars sought information in this way. The method was seldom used by immature scholars. As a rule, the library was not used when using this method for information-seeking.

The second method of information-seeking was used when the researcher started to work on a new research project, a new subject. Then he started generally with standard works or handbooks like Musik in Geschichte und Gegenwart, Religionen in Geschichte und Gegenwart, The History of Ideas, Wörterbuch der Philosophie etc. References to literature in these standard works and handbooks turned out to be of special importance to the scholars. The review articles evaluated the literature the references referred to.

Several researchers stressed the importance of encyclopaedias in the information-seeking process which they considered to be underestimated. Encyclopaedias contain review articles which evaluate the literature to which references are listed. When the scholar has penetrated standard works, handbooks and possibly encyclopaedias, the search often continues in the subject catalogue of the library and in subject bibliographics.

This methods of seeking information was used by both mature and immature scholars but it was most common among immature scholars because the subjects they sought information about in most cases were new. They had no "knowledge bag" to use.

The two main types of information-seeking which have been described do not always occur in their purest form. Individual variations could be seen but it is legitimate to say that these two main types crystallized.

In their investigation Corkill and Mann (1978, 57) found evidence of four common types of research, not necessarily related to a particular subject field. These are: 1) The 'chronicle' type, 2) the critical or comparative type, 3) the contemplative type, and 4) musical composition. The Nordic investigation did not, however, provide any evidence of these four common types of research being connected to any particular type of information-seeking.

9. Other results

The bibliographical awareness of the interviewed subjects appeared to be low. Only one of them knew all existing relevant bibliographical tools in his field of research. Most often the function of the bibliographies was to serve as a tool for checking that no important material was missing. Hardly any of the interviewed subjects knew the national bibliography of their own country and they did not place any particular confidence in computerized information systems. A small number of the interviewed subjects had had searches done in databases but were in fact not impressed by the results of the searches.

According to a citation study conducted by Mats Cavallin in Sweden (LÖNNQVIST 1988, 106 s.) monographs are main actors of the referral system of the humanities, which constitutes the references listed in scholarly works. In the interviews, however, journals received a very prominent position. It is possible to see a connection between references to monographs in sources and the stress on the use of journals in the interviews. Journals supply research news, present new literature, publish book reviews etc. and thus serve as an incentive to the reading of monographs. Journals are much more primary information sources than the most "fleet-footed" database. They also contain more text and valued information than subject bibliographies. Since the indexing of monographs is quite superficial nowadays, researchers have to "take a detour" via journals in order to get an evaluation as to the quality of monographs. A deeper indexing of monographs would probably diminish the dependence on journals.

A large majority of the interviewed subjects expressed a wish for user education, with courses in library use and information retrieval. In general they felt positive about the use of new information technology in their research. In spite of that, their attitude to searching in databases was fairly negative.

(In the oral delivery of this paper a comparison will be made of the methods and results of several studies of the information-seeking behaviour and information needs of scholars in the humanities.)

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Bringing Rural Librarianship to Canada in the 1930s

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Abstract
The setting up and operation of two demonstrations of rural library services in Canada in the 1930s paid for by the Carnegie Corporation of New York are detailed. These demonstration services were the Fraser Valley Regional Library in the lower Fraser Valley in the province of British Columbia on the west coast of Canada, and the Prince Edward Island Libraries in the province of Prince Edward Island on the east coast. Funding through local taxes was taken over by the communities at the end of both demonstrations.

The reasons for the success of these aid projects is explored in the second part of the paper. The services showed the enormous book hunger in the rural areas, and the administrative arrangements of a regional or province-wide library service which could deliver adequate services. The success factors of excellent library leaders, local community support, strategies of the aid donor, the timing, the management style for the demonstrations and the marketing practices used, together with the change agent roles adopted, are examined.

Two demonstrations of rural public library service were carried out in Canada in the 1930s; one was in the lower Fraser River Valley in the province of British Columbia on the west coast and the other in the province of Prince Edward Island on the east coast. Both provinces were predominantly English speaking. In the lower Fraser River Valley fifteen separate local governing areas joined together to provide a cooperative regional library service, in Prince Edward Island the unit was the province, and a province-wide public library service was set up. Both demonstrations were funded by grants from the Carnegie Corporation of New York as part of its library development programme for the British Dominions.

Carnegie Corporation of New York
Established in 1911 in New York, the Carnegie Corporation of New York (CCNY) had as its objective "to promote the advancement and diffusion of knowledge and understanding among the peoples of the United States ..." and of areas of the British Dominions and Colonies.[1] The grants for Canada in the period 1911–1961 amounted to $2,559,660 for library buildings and $931,978 for library grants.

During the period between the two world wars the programmes for the British Dominions and Colonies were similar to those of the Carnegie Corporation in the United States: adult education, fine arts and libraries. In 1926 a large-scale library programme began. Canada received grants for several library projects; among them were a grant of $119,000 to the British Columbia Public Library Commission 1929–36 for demonstration and development of library services and $95,000 for the Prince Edward Island demonstration of library service in the period 1933–35.[2]

Canada in the 1930s
Canada was a federation of nine provinces formed in 1867. Power resided with the provinces, rather than being centralized. There was a population of about ten and a half million, most

Canadians lived within 200 miles of the border with the United States of America to the south.

The impact of the economic Depression affected Canada severely. In the period 1929 to 1933 the Gross National Product declined by 42 percent, by 1933 30 percent of the labour force were unemployed.[3] Yet the federal government had no policies for economic recovery. The Atlantic provinces has been economically depressed since the 1920s. The movement of people from the land to urban areas ceased.

Education and libraries were provincial responsibilities. Schools were managed by local school boards, under direction form provincial education departments. Single teacher schools existed in most rural areas. Canadians attended school until age fourteen. Officially the 1931 census gave figures for the literate population ten years and older as 96 percent.[4]

There were many daily newspapers published, although numbers of copies printed declined during the Depression. Canadians read many imported books; the major British and American publishers had set up branch offices in Canada. Cheap editions from American publishers flooded the market. Canadian publishers were able to operate only inside Canada, again publishing slumpted during the Depression.[5] The Canadian Radio Broadcasting Commission was set up in mid 1933. Films were also imported and very popular, but attendances fell during the Depression.

Nearly eighty percent of the Canadian people had no access to library service at the beginning at the 1930s. As education was a provincial responsibility the idea if planning for library services in Canada as a whole had been concluded to be impossible in the document *Libraries in Canada: a Study of Library Conditions and Needs* Toronto: Ryerson Press and Chicago: American Library Association, 1933. The report of a survey which had been carried out in 1930 by three Canadian librarians, it had been financed by the CCNY. The surveyors suggested the larger library unit on the model of county libraries in the United Kingdom as the solution to the problem of providing rural public library services in sparsely populated Canada. The Fraser Valley scheme was already showing how local governing and taxing authorities could group together to provide library service. The report also suggested Prince Edward Island on the east coast as a good site for a province-wide demonstration library service. The surveyors wanted provincial governments to formulate policies for providing public library services to all citizens, whether they lived in urban or rual areas. They also wanted the Dominion government to set up a national library for Canada.

British Columbia

British Columbia (BC) had a population of about 700,000, mostly of British decent, in 1931. Public libraries in British Columbia were supervised by three member Public Library Commission who served in a voluntary capacity and were appointed by the provincial government. They administered small provincial library grants and provided some travelling boxes of books and sent out books by mail on request to rural people from headquarters in the provincial capital, Victoria. There were public libraries in the cities. Under the chairmanship of Dr Norman F Black, a teacher, the Commission had gathered information on library needs in the province in the hope of improving the situation. With a grant from the CCNY, Clarence B Lester, Secretary of the Free Library Commission of Wisconsin, had acted as advisor for the survey, whose report was published in 1929.[6] Impressed by the survey report, the CCNY donated $100,000 to support the activites of the Commission. The Public Library Commission chose a regional library demonstration as the best method of improving rural library services, and the lower Fraser Valley as a suitable area, eighty miles long and ten miles wide, with a population of 44,000. With a mild climate and plenty of rain, there was mixed farming such

as dairying and fruit growing on the valley floor and a lumber industry in the foothills of the mountains.

Fraser Valley Regional Library

The aim of the five year demonstration 1930–34 of a regional library service in the lower Fraser River Valley was for citizens to be so impressed by the value to their community of such a service that they would continue to fund the library service from local taxes after the demonstration was finished. Dr Helen Gordon Stewart, a Canadian born in 1879 who had been librarian of the Victoria Public Library in British Columbia, one of the foundation member of the BC Public Library Commission, and who had just completed a doctoral program in sociology at Columbia University in New York, assumed leadership of the library in February 1930. She had to persuade fifteen separate local political units to agree to join together to provide a regional library service. The first step was to hold public meetings in the small political units in the Valley, to arouse public interest and explain how the library would operate. Most of the population had no experience of library service. At the public meetings those present voted on accepting the library demonstration, and set up a local committee. Not surprisingly this offer of a free community service was always accepted.[7]

At the same time Stewart set up an office at New Westminster, near Vancouver in the western end of the Valley, selected staff including two permanent and one temporary professional librarians, selected and acquired the first bookstock, which was catalogued and organised for use, and acquired a truck which was converted into a book-van. The library commenced operation in August 1930. The distribution centre for the library was set up at Chilliwack, the largest town, and from there the book-van operated around the Valley. Local communities provided the accommodation and basic furnishings for the branches in the larger settlements. By the end of 1930 there were seven branches, two sub-branches, six deposit stations, three school deposit stations, and fifty book-van stops. At Chilliwack there was a professional library staff member but branches and sub-branches had local staff, their salaries paid by demonstration funds. The service to schools was not vigorously promoted at first; the school already received provincial aid funds, and the chief effort went to service to adults. They would be the people voting for local tax support to continue the library.[8]

The local residents welcomed the library services, a year after opening 13,278 residents were registered borrowers, 30 percent of the population. Stewart wrote to the President of the CCNY:

> They come to the branches from miles around, and nothing the weather can do seems to keep them from the book van when it makes its fortnightly rounds. They splash along the muddy roads in gum boots and slickers, often for one mile, two miles, or more, and when they arrive stand in the open with the wind catching them in the small of the back and the rain cascading down the points of their noses and exclaim – "Wasn't it a red-letter day for us when this bus started!"[9]

In the first sixteen months 230,000 books were circulated. The book-van followed seven routes, covering 1250 miles monthly. A year later there were a total of ninety-two points for library service, circulating 248,313 volumes. By August 1933 38 percent of the population were registered as borrowers, which didn't include children served through the schools. There were also twenty-three reading and study clubs which the library helped in organising programmes and providing books and magazines for courses.[10] At the end of he demonstration there were 19,000 registered borrowers, 120 distribution points and 24,000 volumes in the library collection. The library service was overwhelmed by the phenomenal response in the early years. Funds ran short in 1932 for the closing years of the demonstration, and the

provincial government did not give any assistance, as was expected, because of the financial situation. It was found that at least 50 cents per capita was needed to fund the library service. The CCNY made some extra money available for the demonstration.

The stock of library materials was rotated regularly. Every few weeks part of the collection was changed when the book-van called. Also there was a request service wih 500-700 inter branch requests being supplied every week. These requests were for particular titles or for subject materials. Books not held were considered for ordering, or were borrowed from BC Library commission headquarters in Victoria or other libraries in British Columbia. Also subject lists of books were prepared, and posers and displays set up in the branches.

In August 1931 a meeting was held of representantives of all the local committees, and a Central Committee of one representative from each government unit in the library service was formed to advise the director and the Public Library Commission of British Columbia on policy for the library. Looking to the future of the Service, lobbying started at the end of 1932 for amendments to the Public Library Act of British Columbia, so regional library services could be set up. A citizens' petition was sent from the Valley to the provinical government, and the amendment was passed in 1933. Then lobbying started for a vote on the raising of local taxes to support the continuation of the library service. At the municipal elections of January 1934, despite the Depression, twenty out of twenty-four districts voted to support the library with local taxes. In June 1934 these twenty districts continued the demonstration as the Fraser Valley Union library.

The demonstration was a success also in that two more regional libraries were set up in British Columbia. Wide publicity was given at many meetings, papers and photographs at conferences, articles and photographs in professional journals, and in magazines and newspapers, and a film, so that news of the demonstration regional library spread through Canada, USA and further afield. It was a pioneer in joining together separate local authorites to cooperatively provide a library service, and demonstrated the need for rural library services.

Prince Edward Island Libraries

Prince Edward Island is the smallest province of Canada, both in size and population. An island 120 miles long and about 20 miles wide, it lies in the Gulf of St Lawrence, sheltered from the Atlantic Ocean. The island was first settled in 1719 by the French and later ceded by France to Great Britain. In 1931 there was a population of 88,000, of which 14,000 were of French descent, and the rest of English, Scottish and Irish descent. The capital, Charlottetown, had a population of 12,000 and there was only one other town with a population over 1,000. The industries were agriculture, with mixed farming and fishing. The province was poor, but most farmers owned their own farms.[11]

The report of the Canadian Library Commission, *Libraries in Canada,* had picked the province of Price Edward Island as an ideal site for a demonstration of public library service for the east coast of Canada. In September 1932 the Carnegie Corporation had Dr G Lomer, the librarian of McGill University, visit the Island to give a second opinion, and his report recommended a three-year demonstration of a provincial public library service. The CCNY made a grant of $95,000 for such a demonstration in 1933. Selected as director of the demonstration was Nora Bateson, a staff member of McGill University Library School, who had also worked for a short time in the Fraser Valley demonstration. A graduate of Manchester University, she came to Canada from England in 1922 at the age of twenty-six.

On 1 June 1933 headquarters for Prince Edward Island Libraries were set up in Charlottetown. A qualified assistant librarian was appointed, books ordered, and the first four branches established in three months. As in the Fraser Valley demonstration, a meeting of citizens was called in each centre and the library demonstration explained. Bateson could carry 300

books in bookshelves fitted into the back of her modified car, so she could show people what materials would be supplied. People on Prince Edward Island had had little chance of seeing books.[12] As in the Fraser Valley local committees were set up, with local centres supplying suitable accommodation with heating, lighting and equipment, and the custodians and the collection being paid for through the central library. In 1933 McGill University Library School ran a four-week summer school for custodians in Charlottetown. Because of the long snowy winters and the poor roads a book-van could not be used to distribute books. Every summer the collections in each branch were completely changed.

By 1935 twenty-two branches had been established, with a collection of 1,000 to 1,200 books and ten current journals in each collection. One-third were children's books, and half of the adult abooks were non-fiction, some were in French. All books in the Prince Edward Island Libraries were available to readers anywhere. To make them aware of what was available subject lists were issued, in areas such as agriculture, ships and the sea, biography, economics, war and peace. There were about 150-200 books supplied in answer to requests each week. Also requested books were borrowed on interlibrary loan mainly from McGill University.[13]

The teachers in the rural schools could borrow collections, one per pupil, for two months at a time from the branches, but only 50 percent had done so. Books were also distributed to remote areas through the Women's Institutes. The Institutes aimed "to promote an appreciation of rural living, and to develop informed citizens through the study of national and international issues (particularly those affecting women and children)."[14] In the 1935-36 winter sixty-seven boxes each containing thirty carefully selected titles were sent out from headquarters, and this proved a success.

The library also helped with books and pamphlets for adult education study groups. In 1933-34 thirty-seven groups met during the winter, studying such topics as social reconstruction and oyster culture. By 1936 there were ninety-three study clubs.

The number of registered borrowers out of the population of 88,000 was 23,517, 39 percent. There were also the children in the rural schools and the people using the Women's Institute collections. The annual circulation was 261,029 in 1935. By the end of the demonstration there were 41,000 volumes in the collection. Nora Bateson noted that in winter several people read each book circulated, so that actual potential readership might be tripled. She also said that the idea of the library as a source of information was growing.[15]

A provincial library commission was secured by Bateson, comprising the Governor and the Premier of the province, and five other persons. She also enlisted the support of both the Protestant and Roman Catholic clergy. This was to ensure support for the continuation of the service.[16] The Director also provided good publicity for the service, talking at meetings, getting articles in the newspapers and providing exhibits. She also publicised the service in the other Atlantic provinces.

With a new government in the provincial elections of 1935, who came in with an austerity policy, the library service was threatened. The twenty-two local library committees organised a petition to the government, and the Women's Institutes, the churches and teachers lobbied their local members. The government grant was $24,238 in 1937 and 1938, smaller than the annual CCNY funds had been, but enough to keep the library operating.

The Demonstrations as Catalysis for Library Development

As well as the demonstration libraries continuing, new regional libraries were set up in British Columbia and a new provincial library in the Atlantic provinces of Canada immediately after the CCNY demonstrations. This happened on Vancouver Island and in the Okanagan Valley in British Columbia, and in the Atlantic province of Nova Scotia, again with CCNY seed

money. The demonstrations had shown that there was an enormous book hunger in the rural areas, and that once a professional library service sufficiently financed and of an adequate population base was trialled, the citizens were willing to pay for such a service through their taxes.

The Fraser Valley Regional Library showed the possibility of joining together a variety of taxing and governing authorites to provide library service; it was claimed to be a world first. Some rural library services for large areas had already been developed in the UK and the USA, but in single large government and taxing units, such as counties. A minimum population of 40,000 to 50,000 was proposed by Helen G Stewart, and a minimum budget of $25,000 by Charleton B Joeckel to support a regional library.[17] Also of course a qualified and able librarian in charge. The Prince Edward Island Libraries showed the possibility of a province-wide library service.

Why Where the Demonstrations Successful?

One important factor in the success of the demonstrations was the calibre of the directors: their commitment, courage, intelligence and management ability.

Stewart: C.B. Lester, the Secretary of the Wisconsin Free Library Commission, who reported on the Fraser Valley demonstration for the CCNY in 1932, wrote "Stewart has shown unbounded energy, resourcefulness, and thorough organizing ability."[18] R. M. Lester, a staff member of the CCNY, reported she had a "missionary spirit."[19] C.K. Morison, Stweart's successor at the Fraser Valley library, said of the pioneering Stewart "she was always respected and loved by her staff: she ... expected everyone to deliver one hundred per cent."[20]

Bateson: After a visit to the Prince Edward Island Libraries in 1934 Dr Milton J Ferguson, chief librarian of the Brooklyn Public Library, and a CCNY library adviser, wrote "Who can show me another small woman with the courage and intelligence of the Director of this demonstration?"[21] H H Shaw, the Chief Superindentent of Education, Prince Edward Island, added "The splendid administrative skill and organizing ability of the Director were quickly demonstrated and full confidence was early reposed in all her plans for organizing the province."[22]

The CCNY was to later use both Stewart and Bateson as directors of other CCNY demonstration projects: Stewart in the Caribbean and Bateson in Nova Scotia in Canada.

Another important success factor was the quality and support given by local community leaders and politicans. Religious leaders, teachers, Women's Institute office holders, librarians, journalists and provincial and local politicans were willing to provide time and effort to support the demonstrations. The clear objective of the educational role of the public library in the community for both demonstrations won local political support.

A survey of the existing situation had already been carried out in both BC and Prince Edward Island, a prerequisite for planning for the new services. Apart from annual reports on progress the execution of the projects was left to the local professionals and local supervising authorities. They knew best the social, political, educational and economic context. This CCNY strategy was another important success factor. The funding authority could not be accused of interfering or of trying to promote cultural imperialism from abroad.

It was a suitable time for the development of public libraries in Canada. There was an interest in educational matters and because of the Depression and political changes in Europe it was a time of questioning and search for reasons. It was also because of the Depression, a time for cheap forms of education and entertainment, so people turned to public libraries for reading materials. The circulation statistics for public libraries in the United States increased to their highest point in 1933 and then declined again. Douglas Waples thought the decline

in circulation after 1933 may have been because of the decline in acquisition of new books because of budget cuts in the Depression.[23] This was not a problem for the demonstration libraries while they had the Carnegie funds.

Another factor for success was the management style for the demonstrations. They were examples of project or program management; rather than using traditional bureaucratic structures, all activities were integrated to complete the program. There was a finite time for both demonstrations, with good strategic planning and a clear mission. Stewart and Bateson acted as focal points for all organisational matters related to the demonstrations. They had complete authority to set up and run the dynamic libraries. Their authority however did not come only from their formal positions, they were able to influence the members of their staffs and community members by their enthusiasm, ability and knowledge.

Management research has shown that in program management there is often conflict with the normal organisational structure.[24] This conflict certainly occurred in both demonstrations; Stewart was in conflict with the BC Library Commission bureaucrats at the state capital in Victoria, and Bateson with the provincial government politicians and their departments in Prince Edward Island.

The library demonstrations also applied marketing practices to their services.[25] They undertook market research and analysis of the market, that is the potential users; environmental factors affecting the consumers' behavior, such as other sources of reading materials and information; and the development of a market strategy for meeting the needs of the target market. Marketing is an exchange of goods or services, and for the library demonstrations this was a 'common good' for the community, with the educational purposes of the libraries emphasized.

In service delivery the libraries employed a marketing 'mix' of product, place, price and promotion to achieve a new market for library services. Product and place, the library collections and the location of branches and delivery stations, were carefully chosen, with local input to decision making and constant feedback to adjust to changes in demand. Library materials were made as accessible as possible, so the 'price' in terms of time and effort by the user was made as low as possible. Promotion was an ongoing activity, not only for the particular demonstration libraries to get them continued with local funding at the end of the demonstration, but also to encourage the setting up of regional rural services elsewhere. The marketing strategies of Stweart and Bateson were completely successful.

Change Agents

The definition of change agent used is that of Everett M Rogers: "a professional person who attempts to influence adoption decisions in a direction that he feels is desirable."[26] Both Stewart and Bateson were committed professionals. They spearheaded the use of personal and impersonal communication channels to spread the idea of regional public library services. Thus they used the mass media, newspapers and a film for the FVRL, exhibitions at annual fairs, and spoke to as many community groups such as the Women's Institutes and education authorities as possible. Rogers and Shoemaker conclude from studies of innovations that the mass media and interpersonal communication channels used together are the most effective way of persuading people to adopt new ideas, and this technique was used.[27] Both women also took a long-sighted view; they trained their staffs and sent them off with Carnegie scholarships to library school so they could continue the change process.

Stewart also took a research attitude to the demonstration, with the aim of assisting future adopters of cooperative regional libraries. She reported on

1) the machinery of the regional scheme in the Fraser Valley. Stewart said there were profound differences to county library organization. She investigated the ideal size of

population, the taxation areas and how autonomous bodies could be brought together, and the legislation necessary.

2) the best distribution system
3) how to make results available to the province of BC and further afield.[28]

Rogers and Shoemaker also identify two particular conditions that seem to promote change; determined effort and close attention to recipients' needs.[29] Stewart and Bateson were both dedicated to the success of their projects, and both were responsive to user needs. The committees of local representtives advised Stewart and Bateson on local needs and were always consulted about the location of branches and book-van stops. Both library services kept detailed records of book borrwing to analyse reading interests, and monitored requests for not-held items.

Conclusion

The happy conjunction of responsive local communities who wanted educational, informational and recreational materials from public libraries, the availability of grants for the demonstrations from the CCNY, together with the abilites of Stewart and Bateson as directors, and support from local community leaders, led to successful outcomes for the two aid projects. The two demonstrations show us what can be achieved by the injection of funds together with careful selection of sites, good planning and able administrators. Demonstrations can lead to adoption of resonsibilites for funding library services by the local communities, and also to adoption of such services by other communities once they can see the services operating. This all took place despite a time of severe economic constraint; rural public library services had become an essential community service.

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Literacy and Reading in Iceland

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Abstract
Iceland has one of the highest literacy rates in the world. Why is this the case? This paper examines this question against a background of geographic realities, cultural memory and oral tradition. Secondary data concerning the publishing scene, the library in Iceland and competitors for leisure time are presented.

The research methodology is derived from qualitative research and grounded theory. Fifty-seven interviews of citizens of Iceland were conducted in spring 1988. Participants included community leaders, general citizens, workers in fish factories, educators, librarians, publishers, library science students, college preparatory students and ninth graders.

Results are presented relating to language, history and literature, and an examination of reading – including attitudes toward reading, personal reading experiences, materials choices and sources, reading time preferences and locations, perceived impacts, and reading to others. Finally, two sets of theories are presented and implications for the future.

Iceland has one of the highest – if not the highest – literacy rates in the world, and also publishes the greatest number of books per household.[1] It boasts a per capita output of book titles each year that is three to four times larger than other Nordic countries and about twenty times greater than the United States.[2] Why is this true? What secrets can be learned from examination of Icelandic society and culture that might prove valuable to the rest of the world where so many nations struggle with the serious problems generated by illiteracy.

In an effort to wrestle with these questions, and in conjunction with the opportunity presented through appointment as a Fulbright Professor at the University of Iceland during the winter and spring of 1988, the author conducted a series of interviews with Icelandic citizens representing key groups. The research study was funded by The Spencer Foundation.

Background
There are a variety of factors which may have contributed to the extraordinary literacy achievement in Iceland, including: (1) geographic realities; (2) shared experiences and cultural memory, including family /cultural/institutional/community influences; and 3) a strong oral tradition (including the literature).

Geographic Realities... Icelandic authors have commented at length on the relationship between the land and the people. For example, Thorarinsson states that, "The past of the Icelandic people can never be unraveled by historians alone. The story must to a higher degree than the story of other civilized nations be read in the light of their struggles with the elements, of the changes in the geographical environment due to fluctuations in climate and drift ice, glacier oscillations, soil erosion, and catastrophic events such as volcanic eruptions, 'glacier bursts', and earthquakes."[3] These geographic realities must be considered as factors

during any study of the culture. Their import must be in relation to cultural development, however, rather than as specific geologic phenomena.

Cultural Memory... Few nations are more historically conscious or have closer links with their past than the Icelanders...this is due to the extensive written records going back to the twelfth century and covering the entire history of the nation from its very inception. These records have, literally, been in the possession of the whole people throughout the centuries and have shaped the way of thinking and feeling of every individual. This lively sense of historical continuity is the mainspring of all the national endeavors of the Icelanders today. Their past glories as wells as their age-long misfortunes are a source of inspiration and determination to overcome obstacles on the road to self-realization. [4]

Iceland also has a homogeneity that few modern countries possess. Not only does it seem that everyone in the nation knows almost everyone else, but the Icelanders' present is clearly connected with the living past as experienced through the literature. This impressive development of cultural memory has been facilitated and enhanced by a strong oral tradition.

Oral Tradition... In addition to the significant historical memory that is central to the Icelandic heritage, a parallel attribute exists in a strong oral tradition that has preserved that heritage and carried it forward in the minds and hearts of the Icelandic people. Reading was most commonly practised aloud during the entire period from the 13th to the 19th century. A travel account from 1752 contains the following: "The most sensible and useful pastime of the Icelanders is indisputably the ancient custom of reading old sagas aloud. When they have lit the light in the evenings they let a competent youth or a stranger read aloud. A farmer who likes sagas will borrow enough of them from his neighbours or acquaintances to last the whole winter."[5]

It is worth speculating that the combination of geographic realities, cultural memory and oral tradition may have had significant impact upon literacy. In any event, they serve as points of inquiry within the framework of qualitative methodology in general and, more specifically, the discovery mode of grounded theory.

Methodology

Before beginning a study, the prudent research strategy is to gather as much background information from secondary sources as is available. Therefore, the following paragraphs offer preliminary data that have been fed into the methodological process.

The Publishing Scene... "It is better to go barefoot than go without books," affirms an Icelandic proverb a connotation of survival that symbolizes the Icelanders' attachment to their literature.[6] As illustration of the significance of this proverb, an annual book flood sweeps over Iceland in November and December and has done so for decades. Books continue to be the most popular Christmas gifts and the majority of titles are published just in time for the Christmas season. A recent novelty in Iceland is the emergence of the paperback, which has precipitated the publishing of light reading and thrillers throughout the year.[7]

Yet, signs of change have emerged in the 1980s. The total book stock has increased in volume between 1981 and 1985, with a continuous rise in the amount of book stock per capita. However, between 1986–88, sales by book publishers have contracted 10%, or 5% a year, according to information from the National Economic Institute. Kristján Jóhannsson, Managing Director of one of Iceland's main publishing houses, Almenna bókafélagid, has observed that, "The book is increasingly in competition with other media; people are taking less time to read than before. This fact of competition is reflected in changes with respect to the kind of book which sells. Now there's an increasing demand for educational and technical volumes and various kinds of reference books."[8]

The Library in Iceland... Since political stability and economic prosperity were conspicu-

ously absent from the end of the first republic in 1262 until complete independence from Denmark was regained in 1944, the development of libraries was retarded in like measure. Around the turn of the nineteenth century, the first efforts toward the development of libraries were made through the emergence of reading societies and corresponding subscription libraries, efforts which were relatively short-lived.

The *National Library of Iceland* (*Landsbókasafn Islands*) is the largest library in the country and was founded in 1818. Before that date, there existed no public collection of books or manuscripts, unless one wishes to count libraries of texts and records gathered by monasteries and cathedral churches before the Reformation. By 1985, the National Library possessed some 380,000 volumes of Icelandic and foreign works and approximately 14,000 manuscripts. It claims to have a copy of virtually every book printed in Icelandic, excluding some of the very oldest, exceedlingly rare copies.[9]

The *University Library* (*Háskólabókasafn*) was founded in 1940 to meet the teaching and research needs of the University, which was itself founded in 1911. In 1983, the University Library collection numbered 230,000 printed books (no manuscripts) and, while primarily used by students and faculty, it is also open to the public.[10]

Public libraries in Iceland have their genesis in the eighteenth and nineteenth century reading societies and are not "free" in most Icelandic communities. Rather, the concept of subscription still governs library practice and is an inheritance from the early reading societies. The majority of data collected in terms of library use has focused on circulation and book stock. The data, collected for the period 1981–1985, illustrate extensive library usage, but also indicate what can only be regarded as significant decline in use over the period cited. While it is too early to draw definite conclusions, these figures are very important to the development of theory and must be factored into the final conclusions.

Competitors for Leisure Time... Iceland, a nation of 250,000 people, supports two television stations, six radio stations, five dailies and countless weeklies and magazines.[11] Further, there are artistic and cultural efforts the equal of nations of much larger size, such as the official national institutions of the library, theatre, opera, dance, and gallery, plus numerous local efforts. An increasing number of people are watching Icelandic National Broadcasting Service (R'UV) television programs, according to a survey conducted by Gallup of Iceland. The percentage of survey participants watching R'UV increased from 55–59% in 1988 to 59–72% in 1989. Programs broadcast by independent pay Channel 2 were watched by 44–48% in 1989, up from 41–47% in 1988.[12] In addition, the observer will find that numerous video stores have popped up in virtually all communities. These stores and VCRs are adding a whole new dimension to media use. As mentioned earlier, there is significant competition challenging the book and reading for the precious hours of leisure time. This reality, too, must be taken into account when assessing interview results.

Qualitative research and grounded theory

Much of the world's research is conducted using quantitative methodology and experimental design. While this approach to research is highly valued and has produced meaningful and lasting results, another branch of research design has been markedly underrated. This neglected branch – qualitative methodology – suffers from low social prestige but, since it relates empirically with the subject(s) under analysis, it can provide insights into the objects of study that are otherwise less likely to occur. Therefore, the nature of in-depth interviewing as a research strategy creates an optimum environment in which mental and social processes can be studied within a participative interaction between interviewee and interviewer. The empirical social world is examined by requiring the researcher to interpret that real world from the perspective of the subjects of investigation.[13]

Rather than formulating a hypothesis and going on to test it (the experimental design model), qualitative methods engage in theory construction during the process of the research effort. One term commonly attributed to this mode is "grounded theory." "Grounded theory" can be defined as the *discovery* of theory from data systematically obtained from social research.[14] Because the theory formation is allowed to evolve, rather than being the initial driving force behind the research, a universe of possibility is opened to the researcher. The process allows for serendipity, for inclusion of the unexpected.

Therefore, although this paper began with a few facts, these data will serve not as predicators but as illuminators of the process as it emerges. Much is known statistically about Iceland and its publishing and literacy rates. Little is known as to "why" these data exist. Various theories suggest that isolation and the environment are responsible; but no one really knows. A strong oral tradition is another possibility... perhaps. Grounded theory will absorb all these bits of promise and allow them to flow along together until, hopefully, they merge at long last into a final hypothesis.

The interview process

Categories of interviewees were designed to represent a cross-section of Icelandic society. 1) Persons directly involved with the educational process; 2) Citizens of varying backgrounds; and 3) Students to give insight into attitudes and experiences of the next generation. Fifty-seven Icelanders participated in the study and are classified as follows:

- Group I... Community leaders, general citizens, workers in fish factories (N=21)
- Group II... Educators, librarians, publishers, and University library science students (N=21)
- Group III... Students: Menntaskoli students (college preparatory) and ninth graders (N=15)

The lessons from Iceland: language, history and literature

Seven of the twenty-eight interview questions had direct correlation to the language, history and literature – the Icelandic heritage. These questions relate to language facility, the sagas and folktales, and knowledge of national history and literature.

Language: an inter-cultural expression

All of the persons interviewed could read in more than one language. This was not unexpected, as Iceland has scholastic requirements for multiple language proficiency. Each interviewee was asked in which languages reading proficiency had been attained, and approximately what percentage of overall reading took place in each language.

All respondents were fluent in Icelandic, their primary language; other languages cited included English, Norwegian, Swedish, Danish, Spanish, German, Latin and French. What does this language profile suggest? The heavy emphasis on Icelandic as the language of preference supports the cultural patterns that have developed over the centuries, patterns related to heritage, community, and national pride. But other nations have similar scholastic requirements and yet cannot claim the literary accomplishments of the Icelandic people. Why is Iceland different?

Although a formal school system is relatively recent in historical terms, the Icelandic devotion to learning and scholarship can be traced back to the early years, to at least the eleventh century. In the twelfth century Icelanders were famous in Scandinavia for their interests in history and poetry and, in the middle ages, literacy appears to have been much more widespread than in most other countries of Western and Northern Europe. It would seem, therefor, that Iceland's literacy level cannot be explained by multi-lingual talents, since past liter-

acy seems tied to the vernacular and to periods of history that were generally mono-lingual. The next area to explore lies in the hypothesis that literacy is more likely to be tied to the cultural heritage.

The legacy of history and literature

To the key questions about the importance of knowing Iceland's history and literature and possible linkage to sagas and other oral tales, there was nearly unanimous belief in the importance of the Icelandic heritage. Comments included:

- It helps us remain special.
- We have to protect our identity as Icelanders.
- It is important to be aware of one' s own history and culture.
- It gives you value, roots.
- It is important to know how you can influence your generation.
- The key to everything of Iceland is to be an independent nation.

However, opinion was split as to whether interest in reading was directly affected by this knowledge. Two-thirds of the interviewees felt that it was influenced, while the rest did not agree.

Level of Knowledge... Overall, thirty-eight respondents (67 percent) felt that they had a good to excellent knowledge of the history and literature; of these, 42 percent learned at home from parents and/or grandparents. Only seven in the librarian/educator group (Group I) and five in the citizen group (Group II) felt that they did not have a good knowledge of Icelandic history and literature, and many of those phrased their replies as, "Not good enough."

While the majority of respondents in Group I have passed on this knowledge, half of the citizen group have not. Sinze Group I was academically-oriented, it seems in character that history and literature would continue to be highly valued. The outcome in Group II may be a harbinger of change as two income families have become the norm. This poses some serious implications for continuity of cultural transmission.

The students were evenly divided as to their knowledge level. They had almost unanimously picked up their knowledge of history and literature in school; only two students even mentioned home as a source of information. This result certainly ties in with the citizen group outcome above, where transmission of knowledge is not occurring in half of the situations. This trend appears to continue onward as only three students had passed on any information to others.

Sagas and Folklore... Everyone in Group I and all but one factory-worker in Group II and one student in Group III had knowledge of the *sagas*. The average number of sagas read clustered around five, and most respondents remember first encountering sagas between the ages of seven and ten. A second intensity of exposure occurred in the teen years when the sagas were studied in school. There was no dominant channel for learning about the sagas and all of the following methods were cited: parent told the stories; read it on my own; heard them on the radio; heard them in school (read by the teacher); read them in school.

Folklore was popular with all interviewees. Many folktales were encountered through storytelling: others were familiar because home libraries had collections of tales. More oral tradition seemed to be connected with folklore than with sagas, and grandparents as well as parents were identified as storytellers. Elf tales, fairy tales and ghost stories were all mentioned as part of folklore, and the age of first encounter was pre-school for some of the respondents.

When asked *who told or read these tales to them,* eighteen (86 percent) librarian/educator respondents traced memories to family members, including extended family. Fifteen of the

citizen group (71 percent) attributed such telling/reading to family and only eight (fifty-three percent) of the students could remember being read to by family.

Those who *passed tales on to others* often share in a very personal way. Overall, thirteen librarians/educators (62 percent) eleven citizens (52 percent), and five students (33 percent) admitted to relating folktales to others. When student response is combined with the decline in transmission of history and literature discussed earlier, the case can be made that this signifies an emerging trend in the cultural fabric. If so, the literacy rate may be subsequently affected.

Thirty respondents (53 percent) saw a definite *connection* between sagas and oral tales and their interest in reading. The least enthusiastic response was from the students (only two positive responses) which may add more evidence to support a lessening emphasis on the oral tradition.

An examination of reading

Examination of the early history of Icelandic print literacy must acknowledge the underlying importance of history, poetry and literature – a baseline of cultural literacy. In addition, the location and climate of Iceland are factors which must also be considered in the search for the building blocks of Icelandic literacy. However, the catalytic impetus provided by religion – and, more specifically, government-enforced religion – must also be recognized. The influence of Lutheran pastors and the Danish king in requiring examination of children's reading ability was a definite causal agent. By assessing the influence of the church, climate and isolation, and the gathering of family together on winter nights, a reasonable case can be made for theory construction that regards these elements as significant motivation for the reading skills developing through the centuries. But in the twentieth century, these variables have changed significantly.

- Iceland is no longer governed by Denmark; independence was achieved in 1944.
- Religion is nominally important, but pastor visitations are no longer mandated.
- Climate is relatively unchanged, but Iceland is increasingly part of the world community and Icelanders travel extensively – diminishing the variable of isolation.
- The kvoldvaka (evening reading) died out as a prevailing custom in the 1920–1930s.
- Families often have two wage-earners.
- Individuals frequently have more than one job.

Consequently, the continuing high level of print literacy may trigger several hypotheses:

1) This level is an extension of the previous heritage and changing conditions may have grave effects in the future;

2) The level has been high, but, in reality, has been declining incrementally; and

3) Literacy is so strongly imbedded in the heritage that societal change.

Other theories may surface when new information or trends emerge, but these three hypotheses will be examined in the light of interview responses.

Attitudes toward reading

When the question was posed as to whether reading was "liked"or not, only five persons responded in the negative. Of these, three were ninth graders, who claimed to being "not interested", "would rather go outside", and "just not liking it". Beyond liking to read, the perceived importance of reading is an important attribute of literacy. Reading was rated as an important activity by the majority of respondents. Ninety-five percent of the interviewees regarded reading as at least average in importance. These figures correspond in a consistent manner with the data concerned with liking to read.

Reading speed is yet another perspective to be considered. Forty-nine percent consider

themselves to read at a high or very high rate; 91 percent believe themselves to be at least average readers. Since ability is often tied to whether one likes or enjoys an activity, these results support the previously discussed data and there continues to be a consistency among the various statistics reported.

From these responses, it is apparent that reading is definitely still an important part of the Icelandic world. Reading is preceived as an enjoyable activity and respondents have a positive image of their ability to read.

Personal reading experiences

Since reading has been described as a desirable activity, a follow-up line of inquiry into memories of childhood and the developmental years is indicated: How much were interviewees read to as children? How young were they when they learned to read? How well did they score on reading tests in school? These questions help to clarify whether early experiences have shaped behavior later in life.

Early Memories of Oral Reading... To the questions concerning whether or not they were read to as children, only ten (18 percent) replied that they had not had this experience. Of those majority respondents who had received oral reading, seventy-seven percent indicated that parents had been readers. In addition, the extended family was very influential in this early reading pattern. Fifty-two percent of the respondents cited grandparents and other relatives as readers. In all cases, the reading had begun during the preschool years, most typically by the age of three.

First Memories... The most frequently cited early memories revolve around folk and fairy tales, whether read aloud or told as stories. Since children around the world relate strongly to imaginative literature, this finding is not surprising. While imaginative literature was dominant, it is clear that these early experiences were powerful ones and persisted in active consciousness into early and late adulthood. Such recollections can be very influential as motivators of behavior.

Reading Proficiency... Two interview questions were focused on reading in terms of when basic skills were attained and subsequent proficiency in school. Overall, thirty-four (60 percent) of the respondents specifically remembered learning to read prior to entering school. This relative norm of early reading suggests two assumptions: 1) that reading was a strong societal value and 2) that families were directly involved in this learning process. The evidence is mounting in support of Hypotheses #1 and #3, which focus on the importance of heritage and societal continuity.

Materials choices and sources

Interview results have documented positive motivation for reading in terms of both attitudes and experiences. Building upon this data, the next set of questions asks: What is read and where does it come from?

First choices can be enlightening. While all memories are special, representative comments clustered around home, libraries, books received both as gifts and purchased, and particular books. The template for reading was established very early in life; the pattern has endured. Moving into the present, individuals were asked about current reading material. All major formats – books, magazines, and newspapers – were heavily read.

Sources of Materials... Materials were secured from a variety of sources: some were purchased; others were received as gifts or were borrowed from friends. Public, home and school libraries were also avenues for locating reading material. (Since school libraries are a fairly recent development, patterns of habit have not been securely established.) The workplace was cited by a few.

Purchasing was the most popular choice of the interviewees, with use of the public library as a strong second choice. When asked whether there was access to a public library during childhood years, fifty-three (93 percent) responded affirmatively. This strong public library background has resulted in a continued high level of usage in later years.

In addition to public libraries, many interviewees also cited use of home libraries and everyone either had a personal library or used their family's library. Twenty percent of those interviewed in Tomasson's 1971 study[15] estimated home libraries of 500 or more volumes; forty-two percent of the 1988 interviewees claimed libraries of this size. More than double the earlier figure, this result suggests that interest in personal home libraries is increasing – which may account for the decline in public library circulation discussed earlier and adds more weight to the two hypotheses that emphasize a continuation of the heritage.

Reading time preferences and locations

The conclusions that reading is desirable and that libraries, both home and public, are favorably viewed as sources of materials lead to the questions: When and where does reading take place? Pre-bedtime reading is the favorite of those interviewed, with evening and vacation reading trailing behind. While these results might be generalized as human reactions, it is important to recognize that, at the time of the interviews, there were two television stations – the state-sponsordsed channel 1 and pay channel 2 – and that the state channel typically aired between 6 p.m. and 10:30 p.m. This scheduling left the pre-bedtime slot free of television competition unless a subscription to the pay channel was in place. In addition, the responses which cite "daytime" "after school", and "in the morning" (a total of 15), if clustered, would also exist outside the television "window".

The other side of this television pattern, however, is that there would have been direct competition during the evening hours--and evening reading placed second in the ranking, suggesting less effect of television on the allocation of leisure hours. In addition, radio and video cassettes remained viable competitors throughout the day and evening and seem to not have appreciably cut into the time allocated to reading.

Seasonal Patterns... Moving from a daily pattern to one that is seasonal,twenty-four respondents (42 percent) expressed a preference for reading in the winter, but twelve (21 percent) decidedly favored summertime, particularly in terms of recreational reading and thirteen (23 percent) saw no difference in their reading patterns. This data gives some support to the theory that darkness and cold are strong motivators, but the results are not compelling.Rather, the evidence suggests that personal style rather than societal mode is the prime mover.

The Ideal Setting... When asked to imagine an ideal setting for sitting down with a book, a full range of scenarios emerged. Factors of comfort and sensual pleasure were continually expressed. The bedroom again topped the list; tied for the highest ranking was the favorite chair. The coziness of reading inside while bad weather raged ranked next, followed closely by food and drink and the luxury of being alone. However, no single factor was cited in isolation and scenarios were generally proposed that included multiple elements.

Perceived impacts on reading

Why is reading this important? Interviewees were asked about a variety of possible factors that might have had an impact on their interest in reading and/or their ability to read. The responses add conclusive evidence to the theory that weather, climate and light are determinants in reading motivation, although the adults appear to be more affected than the students.

Expectations are the most significant motivators, however, whether coming from family, school or community. Since expectations are intrinsically tied to the Icelandic heritage, and

all groups (including students) highly valued the impact of expectations upon their reading, this data strongly supports the third hypothesis: that literacy is so strongly imbedded in the Icelandic heritage that societal change cannot fundamentally affect it.

Reading to others: continuation of a heritage

Only one publisher, one library science student, one community leader, one citizen, one factory worker, and four students denied that they read to others (total of nine, or 16 percent). Simple arithmetic results in an 84 percent affirmative response, demonstrating a strong continuation of the reading heritage. Family members were most frequently the audience for oral reading and, of these, the overwhelming majority were children. Reading began when the children were preschool in age, most commonly between ages 2–3. The most popular reading materials were children's books and fairy tales.

Conclusion

Using the methodology of qualitative research and grounded theory, two sets of theories have been presented, theories which evolved through examination of previously written material and were subsequently refined through interviews. To summarize, these theories state that:

In the Past... There are a variety of factors which may have contributed to the development of an extraordinary literacy achievement in Iceland, including:

- Geographic realities
- Shared experiences and cultural memory,
  including family/cultural/institutional/community influences
- A strong oral tradition

The Evidence for the Past... The Icelandic interviews reinforce a theory of consolidation, as they have highlighted the importance of history, literature, and reading to present day Icelanders. It may then be reasonably concluded that all three theoretical factors – land, heritage, and cultural sharing through oral transmission and literature – have measurably contributed to the development of Icelandic literacy in this century.

In the Present... Today's literacy level can be explained as follows:

- This level is an extension of the previous heritage and changing conditions may have grave effects in the future
- The level has been high, but in reality, has been declining incrementally
- Literacy is so strongly imbedded in the Icelandic heritage that societal change cannot fundmentally affect it

The Evidence for the Present... Today, a changing world has made inroads into traditional Icelandic identity. Yet, many of the interviews have suggested that the third theory is the strongest, that even changing conditions will not seriously impair the cultural and print literacy levels that presently continue at the highest level. Popular sentiment professes that the Icelandic heritage has, at least so far, resisted major negative impact from the global society and developing technologies. However, since the influence of television and video is presently taking hold, it is too soon to anticipate what the level of media literacy might be some decades into the future and whether media influence may subsequently affect print literacy accomplishments. The overall results suggest limited impact, with the largest number of interviewees watching television between six and ten hours per week and videos less than five hours per week. Almost half of the total group own VCRs, but not one owned a satellite dish (although several dishes can be seen in and around Reykjavik). However, when the younger students are spotlighted, this rather benign result changes; ninth graders are heavy televison watchers and also include videos in their leisure hours. Does this indicate a trend that,

together with other societal change, will have significant impact? Many interviewees believe so and express sincere concern and a genuine sense of foreboding.

Therefore, there is sufficient evidence present in these interviews to suggest that the first theory must be given serious consideration. While many Icelanders believe in the invincibilty of the culture, it would be naive to affirm that position. In addition, the second theory, which makes the claim that decline has aleady begun, also is reflective of these sentiments and cannot be completely discounted. However, theory #1 has been selected as most probable because it reflects a balance between positive and negative views and recognizes the potential impact of change. Time may prove it to be an insufficient explanation, and other theories may rise in prominence.

Implications for the Future... What does it all mean? If Icelandic literacy is threatened by a variety of change agents, what does this tell the rest of the world? What coping strategies can be developed to ease the stress and strain of societal change? A beginning can be made with the creation of lists. What have been Iceland's strengths, qualities that have created a nation with 100 percent literacy? Based on the interviews, the following elements emerge:

- A strong sense of personal independence and belief in survival
- The importance of the immediate and extended family
- A sense of interdependence within the nation
- An intense feeling of community
- A reverence for the language as a precourser of culture
- Strongly held traditions, including the oral tradition
- Belief in nature,land, and folklore
- Effects of geography, climate and isolation
- Regard for reading as the ultimate source of knowledge

Once these positive factors are identified, the search then moves into the minus column. What new or emerging considerations are challenging the literacy standard? These items have been cited:

- Urbanization
- Centralized schooling
- Movement of learning from home to school
- Two income families
- A higher standard of living
- Decrease in live-together extended families in cities
- Television and video
- Increasing options for time
- Membership in a world society

This last list contains factors that reflect a culture that is moving from rural independence to an urban scene that makes very serious demands: centralization of services; high technology; increasing standard of living and the accompanying aspirations; changing family structure; interface with other cultures, and more complex lifestyles. The system of values necessarily is shifting from the simpler configuration of the countryside.

Yet, none of the elements on the positive list are exclusively tied to a rural setting. All of the factors could be implemented into the urban setting and, in some cases, this is being done. Whether the majority of Icelanders are able to make the shift, whether the youth of the nation will perceive the importance of doing so – these are key questions which hold the future of literacy in balance.

In terms of other nations of the world, the lessons can be simply stated. There are values engendered by familiar and other inter-personal relationships, cultural traditions, and personal self-worth that are interrelated and interdependent. If these three levels – indi-

vidual, family and the larger society – send and receive consistent messages regarding these values in general and reading and education in particular, then literacy is the sum of the equation. Where messages are mixed – or absent altogether – then confusion results and the necessary effort to achieve literacy is not expended.

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Development in Reading in Yugoslavia

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Abstract
According to recent research (which is only partial) every second Yugoslav reads more than one books a year which seems to be progress in comparison to a 1973 study. Younger, women and the higher educated read more. The majority of readers read fiction, with a prevalence of history novel. About 27% of the population buys books, 11% lends in public libraries and about the same from friends.

This unsatisfactory level of reading culture is due to historical background economic development of regions, literacy, production and the availability of books as well as the existence and utilization of public libraries.

In the paper the author analyzes conditions for reading in the Yugoslav cultural area in the past as well as results of reading research conducted in 1980s.

The total historical and cultural development of a country considerably influenced reading habits and needs of its population. Within a limited space of this paper we can give just a rough presentation of development of some basic conditions for reading in the Yugoslav cultural area (1) until the present day. We refer to general literacy, production and prevalence of books as well as to the existance and utilization of (public) libraries etc. Exact data on reading are obtained from investigations that have been performed in Yugoslavia rather late, partialy and often methodologicaly unreliably.

In the Midle Ages (from the 10th c.) the written culture in Slavonic scripts, Glagolitic and Cyrillic, was developed in South-Slav countries being naturally restricted to the narrow circles of clergy like elsewhere in Europe. The Reinaissance whose influence was most srongly left in Dalmatian towns brought about literature in national language and Latin letters. At that time develop libraries which learned humanists left as foundations to monasteries and towns. The Republic of Dubrovnik, free and open to cultural influences, supported monastic libraries on condition that learned secular persons could use them. But some single and rare private, monastic and founded libraries make evident that the book and reading belonged to the elite and isolated spiritual enclaves of the society of that time. That for centuries established picture was only partially changed by the brief flash of Reformation that influenced only Slovenia and Croatia on its margins. The well-known Slovene reformer Primož Trubar wrote in 1562 that "thank God, also Slovene peasants and children read books well and smoothly". Hardly any nation could find in the folk such evidence at that time. At the end of the 18th c. greater or smaller educational reforms of Maria Theresia were performed (depending on the status of certain country within the Monarchy) in the countries belonging to Austria-Hungary. Without regard to their primary aim-absolutist rationalisation of government and army- the reforms brought about the introduction of compulsory primary school system. Serbia and Crna Gora introduced compulsory schooling later, at the end of 19th c. It is hard to estimate how many children were comprised by it, but certainly masses remained illiterate until recent times with the exception of Slovenia and parts of Croatia.

A well-known historian E. Hobsbawm took South Slavs as an example of a completely

illiterate nation after the Napoleonic wars. He quoted that in 1827 there were only 0,5% of literate, and even much later only 1% Dalmatian recruits in the Austrian Army could read and write (we do not know whether this applied to German). According to the Austrian census from 1900 the Slovene language group had 23% and the Croato-Serbian 75% of the illiterate. Parallel data for the Czech-Moravan-Slovak group show only 3% of the illiterate population, than 16% for Italian, 40% for Polish and 75% for Roumanian. Data about Croatia in 1900 are somewhat different and report 58,5% of the illiterate. In 1910 one can again compare data for Croatia (48,4%) and Slovenia (14,6%).

Yet, during the 19th c. the ascending middle class founded in South Slav regions reading-clubs and libraries. Along with them developed on the model of developed Europe the literary and political public. Waking of national consciousness (Croatian, Serbian, Slovene, and the joint South-Slavic in form of the Illyrian Movement) gave rise to journalism and publishing in the national language. The bookseller's network was spread. So in 1903 there were 128 booksellers in Serbia and 15 in Voivodina.

Finally, at the turn of the century grew the awareness of the need for national enligtenment. It gave rise to the movement for establishment of public libraries. We may say that foundation of public libraries and the fact that they were visited by common people from the folk established our topic-reading-as a unviersal problem of the modern society. Active book reading became one of the key measures of cultural development of a society. At the time we talk about people believed that by spreading of education, general literacy and availability of books practically all people would become active readers, that they would not be able to resist the magic call of the nice written word. So the whole society would be improved. It turned out that the objective assumptions for reading are necessary and that they doubtlessly influence the rate of readers, but that they are not sufficient to have the majority of people to read. But I suppose that this problem will be discussed in reports from more developed countries.

Talking about the Yugoslav countries we should have in mind that in the first common state and in its brief interwar history main preconditions for developed reading culture were not created, though a certain progress was achieved. The census from 1921 reports furthermore a high percentage of illiteracy: 65.43% in Serbia, 32.15% in Croatia, 80.55% in Bosnia and Herzegovina, 67.02% in Montenegro, 73.86% of the illiterate in Macefndonia refer to a year later. Out of 13.934.038 inhabitants in Yugoslavia in 1931 6.197.916 or some 45% were still illiterate. Differences between some regions of the country remained drastic. The illiteracy in Kosovo is far the highest 90%.

Booksellers' and publishers' network was spreading over the whole country. In 1935 there were 209 booksellers in 71 places in Serbia, 128 booksellers in 56 places in Voivodina and 15 booksellers in 5 places in Kosovo.

The number of various types of libraries grew considerably as compared to the previous period. Some of them continued the activities already begun, but also many new were opened. Very often there were small improvised libraries lacking space, with poor and unattractive holdings and unprofessional staff. All that could not attract a larger number of users. Relatively well operate central town and social libraries (libraries of workers, peasants, cultural-educational, denominational and other associations).

There are no systematic data on membership and book lending in libraries. But according to different examples one can draw a conclusion that libraries included rather a small part of population except in Slovenia and probably in some towns. According to the data for 1927 stated by B. Gerlanc we have calculated that over 10% of the population of the then Drava Banat (one of the 9 banats whose boarders mainly corresponded to today's Slovenia) were users of public libraries and that their holdings had somewhat more than half a book per

capita. It is difficult to state the general trend of growing acquisition and membership. Yet this was found out for a number of libraries that in addition to the regular acquisition organised depository stations and mobile units. In general, libraries were open to all population categories, but schoolchildren and students prevailed. Very probably each second student was a user of a public library. By way of illustration we shall give a few different examples of libraries and their membership in other parts of the country. The Town Library of Belgrade registered in 1931 25.480 adult visitors (1.269 adult members) and 5.416 children (629 members). A year later there was a total of 33.909 adult visitors and 2.649 children (a total of 1.174 new members). In 1931 Belgrade had 238,775 inhabitants, so that 1% of the population were members of public libraries! In Šabac, a small town in north Serbia, in 1935 were lended 4,010 and in 1937 3,862 books. Readers were lawyers (22), judges (32), officers (30); priests (10), professors (50), physicians (40), students (53), teachers (90), clerks (248), pensioners (150), private persons (133), pupils (1077), merchants and craftsmen (70) – a total of 2005 users.

The National-liberation war and the authentic socialist revolution made the traditional peasant masses take part in it socially mobile and moreover introduced in them aspirations for social promotion. Moving to town and entering government employment (practically the whole economy was nationalized) were objectively connected with the need for elementary literacy. Additionally, socialist authorities started out of ideological reasons the nation-wide neoenlightenment campaign for mass literacy teaching and education, first of all the ideological one. The starting point was that capitalism intentionally held masses in darkness and that education, correctly ideologically aimed would simply develop national consciounsness. For the socialist voluntarism spreading enlightenment – en masse is nice. Pointed out were slogans "each house, block, working unit should have a library".

However, there were not enough books (many were destroyed or carried away during the war) and space for so many libraries that emerged all over the country and particularly professional staff was lacking. But they were ardently registered in official reports of state and party commissioners for culture and education. Their number was very probably exaggerated in order to demonstrate great progress in the socialist cultural development. According to the data of the Ministry for science and culture of the Federal People's Republic of Yugoslavia there was a total of 9.772 public libraries with 3,102,964 books and 1,831,198 readers in 1948. So one book came on every five inhabitants in Yugoslavia. Out of 15,841,566 inhabitants about 12% were members of public libraries.

For that period it was a very high percentage of membership in libraries, if real, especially with regard to the fact that it was a country where after the war every second inhabitant was illiterate, and in some regions literacy was a sign of elitism. That the cited "offical" data about the membership in public libraries should be taken with a restriction show later polls and more objective statistical data. A poll taken in Slovenia in 1954 registered 84,337 members, what made 5.6% of inhabitants in this republic, and 1.381,273 lended books. According to data from 1956 3% of inhabitants in Bosnia and Herzegovina were library users.

Yet, it is probable that in the postwar period thanks to the enthusiasm of masses and activism of new authorities in a short period an important step forward was done in developing reading culture. Mass literacy teaching, spreading of libraries and their accessibility to a common man made basic conditions for reading as a normal cultural need. It is very likely that relatively many people really began to read at that time. Another question is why this trend, not only the fast increase in the relative number of readers but also concerning the reading quality, did not continue. Anyway, there are several reasons, some of them are the way of living of the general public, penetrating of the new non-reading culture, and some have deeper antropological nature. At any case later, state and development of reading in

Yugoslavia becomes an increasingly expression on a complex organic cultural development, and less of the direct state and party intervention. This facilitates a comparative research with western democratic societies.

After some time the number of libraries became stable. Thus a basis for rationalisation and development of a modern library network as a fundamental infrastructural condition for reading was created. As early as 1952, when regular statistics about libraries were started, considerably less librarise were registered (with more than 250 books) than a few years before –1,688. In 1961 operated 3.065 units. According to the statistics from 1986 in Yugoslavia 2.012 public library are registered units out of which 1.827 are in settlements and others are in factories and institutions.

Since 1961 statistical data about the registered library users have been collected. Since then the number has been slowly rising – from 7% of the population (1.305.000) to 10% (2.312.000) according to the data from 1986. But book loan has been increasing faster.

In 1961 a total of 13.617.000, and in 1986 some 37.666.000 books were lended. Parallelly, holdings grew from 7.969.000 to 28.060.000.

The total state of affairs disguises the real situation in numerous small public libraries that do not have funds to renew their collection regularly and make them attractive to (potential) users.

It is important to be mentioned that users are generally readers, because holdings containing audio-visual material are in Yugoslav libraries very rare and poor.

Almost every second user in public libraries is a boy or a girl from a primary school, and a quarter of members are secondary school pupils and students, who most frequently borrow books.

Although the Yugoslav library standards (a book per capita) are lower than those in the world, and public libraries are late in transformation form traditional to modern library and information centres of the local community, they cannot alone be responsible for unsatisfactory reading culture of the average Yugoslav. According to some indicators Yugoslav publishing trade is relatively more progressive. In the comparative analysis of publishing production in ten European countries (Belgium, Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, the Netherlands, German Democratic Republic, Poland, Sweden) Yugoslavia took the fourth place by the number of published titles. In a UNESCO report Yugoslavia is by the number of published translations among the first twelwe countries in the world, whereas by the absolute and relative edition it takes some twenty-fifth place. Also Escarpit ranges Yugoslavia among great translators' countries. Data on considerable increase in book selling suggest that people read perhaps more than data about library visits shows. In 1965 were sold 9.516.000 books and journals (without school books and textbooks), and in 1987 109,773,000. In 1965 were published 99.000.000, and in 1988 94.000.000 books and journals.

Despite the immense progress in literacy the situation is still not satisfactory, although the criterion of literacy is a finished elementary school (eight years) that is compulsory in the whole country. Between the census in 1971 and 1981 the population rate without elementary school education decreased for one fifth, from 62,5% to 44,3%. The lowest population rate without elementary school had Slovenia (26,2%) and the highest Bosnia and Herzegovina (49,7%). The last census in 1981 registered 20% of population with elementary school, 25,7% with secondary, and 5% with two-year post-secondary school qualifications and university qualifications. About 7,5 million adults still do not have elementary education, so they can be hardly counted in the potential reading public.

The first specific "research" into reading was carried out immediately after the War by studying and classifying public library users into different psychological types in order to

direct their interest toward "good literature". The reseraches were induced by Rubakin's theory (2).

Scientific research into reading problems started as late as the seventies, but unfortunately, only one was carried out for the whole country (3). Here we shall report results of this research, and then of a longitudinal project which is carried out in Slovenia every five years (4), further of two investigations of cultural needs or book marketing in Croatia (5) and of several smaller researches in using libraries and in reading in Belgrade (6). As these results were obtained by different methods, they can be compared only conditionally.

How many people read? 38% of the population in Yugoslavia read in 1973 at least one book (43% in Slovenia and 42% in Croatia). In Yugoslavia read 65 % of the population aged 18–24, and 28% aged 55–64. There are 81% of highly educated readers, 20% of craftsmen, 15% of peasants and 14% of unskilled workers.

In *Slovenia* read 52% of the inhabitants more than one book in 1984, what corresponds to the results of some research carried out in Slovenia in 1973. At the end of the seventies this percentage reached even 66%, but it was not retained. One third of them read more than three books. Not a single book was read by 82% of peasants, 62% of unskilled workers, 55% of pensioners, 26% of clerks with secondary education, 8% of those with university qualifications and 4% of pupils and students. Good readers are mostly engaged in culture (50%), education and science (38%), administation (32%), publich health service and social welfare (24%), and at least in crafts (12%), traffic (8%) and agriculture (5%). The younger population and women read more, what earlier investigations have shown. Differences between rural and urban population were considerable. That year (1984) more than three books were read by 44% of urban, 39% of suburban and 23% of rural population. It is interesting that out of 48% of non-readers 45% regularly read newspapers.

Reseach in book marketing in *Croatia* (1983) shows that 45% of the population were constant book readers. Like in Slovenia more constant were readers with university and secondary school education, women and younger people. According to a research in cultural needs of population (1989) reading leads on the list of "cultural activites" (7,8% of respondents) during the spare time, before sports (15%), hobbies (11,8%), going out with friends (10,3%), walks and riding a bicycle (8,7%). In Croatia 66,8% of respondents read daily and weekly newspapers and 17,6% specialized periodicals.

Reading research in *Belgrade* was carried out on a random sample from public libraries and buyers in bookshops, by means of sales agents and advertisements. Understandably, data are extremely unrepresentative of the whole population. There were 85,2% of readers: 35% are occasional, 35,8% constant and 13,6% passionate (read 2 books monthly). The last were mainly students, teachers and employees in cultur and other non-productive branches of the economy. A smaller investigation conducted among the employees in Prijepolje, a small town in Serbia, showed that only 29% of respondents (again on unrepresentative sample) read more than 3 books yearly. Daily and weekly papers were read regularly by 67,3% respondents.

What is read? Among readers in *Slovenia* (52% of population) 45% read only fiction, and 7% only textbooks, popular science and socio-political literature. Especially interesting are values that readers represent. People with a high regard for authority do not read intensively. They are interested in popular science and fiction. The keener readers (primarily of fiction) consider family to be most important. Persons for whom money is the most important thing prefer fiction, are not interested in textbooks and not the least in sociopolitical literature. The authors of the reserach consider that the best Slovene readers are those for whom the highest value is culture, because they read fiction, popular science as well as textbooks and science literature.

Most readers of fiction prefer historical novels (35%), then biographies and novels about war (25%), novels about contemporary life and love novels (23%), whereas the last places are taken by poetry (12%), science fiction (10%) and essays (6%). The majority of readers look in a book for a gripping and complicated story. So researchers conclude that people read to escape from everyday reality to an ideal world.

In *Croatia* 36.3 % of readers read fiction, 22.5% textbooks and science literature, and 9.8% something else. Men read mostly historical novels (20%), and the least memoirs and love novels. Women read mostly love novels (32.5%), then historical novels (17.3%) and the least memoirs and science fiction (2.9%). Young respondents aged 17 to 20 read mostly fiction (54.2%) and respondents aged 41 to 51 (30.3%) textbooks.

Researches in *Belgrade public libraries* show results similar to those represetantive of Slovenia. Readers mostly read historical novels (38.32%), travel-records, memoirs and biographies (36.29%) then social (36.04%) and love novels (34.52%). Poetry (22.34%) and science fiction (19.54%) are read less, even less political literature (15,99%), and the least economy and law (9.39%) as well as natural sciences (8.88%).

How do people acquire books? In *Slovenia* 27% of the population buy books, 11% borrow them in libraries and somewhat less than 11% borrow them from friends. In Croatia 32.4% of the population buy books, whereas 8% borrow them in libraries. In all the polled environments books are bought by people having higher family incomes.

A private library with more than 200 books is owned by 13% of those polled in Slovenia, by 50% in Serbia (unrepresentative sample) and by 20.3% in Croatia (23.1% of respondents in Croatia have a videorecorder). A significant difference between having the private libraries in towns and in villages is stated. In Zagreb no less than 69.2% of the population have privat libraries with more than 200 books.

Slovene reserachers have found out that one of the reasons why a relatively *small percentage of the population borrows books in public libraries* is "the lack of a nearby public library" (those polled in villages account for 80% of such replies). The other reason is that libraries do not acquire enough books that are demanded. Moreover, libraries are defficient in the effective informing about new books. Even constant users learn about new books mostly from their friends, reading a newspaper article or notice them in shopwindows. Library users are chiefly satisfied with library service. This leads to a conclusion that they are not expecting much of libraries.

Causes of the unsatisfying reading culture are certainly manifold and complex. Just some of them have been discussed here incidentally. Taken generally, the South-Slavic nations lagged behind in literacy for historical reasons (with the exception of Slovenes), although reading enclaves developed early. Afterwards social poverty did hinder the development of cultural prerequisities for mass reading. We are fully avare that this explains just a part of the problem.

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SLOVENIA
LJUBLJANA
ZAGREB
CROATIA
VOJVODINA
NOVI SAD
BOSNIA
AND
HERZEGOVINA
BEOGRAD
SERBIA
SARAJEVO
MONTENEGRO
TITOGRAD
KOSOVO
PRIŠTINA
SKOPJE
MACEDONIA

YUGOSLAVIA – STATISTICAL DATA CONCERNING READING

	population ca 1987 in-1000	books publ. in 1988	newspap. publ. in 1988	journals publ. in 1988	Public libraries in 1986. no of units	book holdings in-1000	registered users in-1000	books lended in 1986
YUGOSLAVIA	23,411	2,100	2,723	1,719	2,012	28,060	2,312	37,666
BOSNIA AND HERZEGOVINA	4,398	858	315	92	199	3,490	361	5,106
MONTENEGRO	625	347	68	28	20	418	14	301
CROATIA	4,672	2,749	629	453	264	4,219	468	8,869
MACEDONIA	2,065	866	142	86	130	2,386	119	1,777
SLOVENIA	1,937	2,089	485	300	105	4,249	397	6,551
SERBIA	9,714	5,191	1,084	760	1,117	13,298	961	15,062
SERBIA, WITHOUT PROVINCES	5,816	3,883	718	583	650	8,062	627	10,182
PROVINCES: KOSOVO	1,848	360	60	43	173	1,987	92	1,364
VOIVODINA	2,050	948	306	134	294	3,249	241	3,516

The Possibility of comparative Study on Children's and Young People's reading Habits

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Abstract
This is a tentative assessment of material gathered by means of a questionnaire on children's and young people's reading. Twenty countries have responded with relevant information. The provided data represent a varied form and their comparison poses several difficulties. The article suggests a selection of data and an in-depth analysis. The author recommends writing an extensive article on this topic.

Terms of comparative studies
According to the definition formulated in the Encyclopaedia of Library and Information Science, comparative library science embraces a systematic analysis of development and activity of libraries in each country taking into account historical, political, economic, social, and cultural circumstances.

The inclusion of a broader social context permits to perceive comparative library science as a method analogous to that typical of historical, political, geographical, sociological and other studies.

Various attempts were made to explain the range and content of this encyclopaedic definition. They were first compiled by S. Simsova and M. Mackee in "A Handbook of Comparative Librarianship". All quoted authors emphasize the humanistic value of the method as it favours international cooperation in the field of librarianship and helps to better understand the social processes taking place in each country.

Scholars have known and employed the comparative method for a long time in such fields of knowledge as religion studies, linguistics, literature studies, sociology, psychology, political and economic studies.

Among works which overlap with our interests one ought to mention the book by Jean Hassendorfer "Dévelopment compare des bibliothèques publiques en France, en Grand Bretagne et aux Etats-Unis dans la seconde moitié du XIXe siècle (1850–1914)". By comparing the development of public libraries in Great Britain, the United States and France against the background of historical conditions of social progress in those countries, the author sought an answer to the question why public libraries in France develop so weakly, and why their participation in influencing reading interests is so low. Other works, such as K. C. Harrison's "Libraries in Scandinavia", H.C. Cambell's "Metropolitan Public Library Planning throughout the World", and on Polish ground M. Dembowska's "Documentation and Information Science", B. Świderski's "Cooperation of Libraries in Collections Acquisition", are rather collections of information on selected phenomena (types of libraries, library work) supplied with a broader or narrower commentary.

Thus one ought to determine the necessary conditions for compartive work in the field of readership among children and young people. The preliminary steps include: (a) definition

of the methodological basis, i.e. formulating a question with reference to the examined phenomenon or phenomena,
(b) selection of adequate research tools subordinate to main methodological foundations,
(c) collection of information material according to identifying or differentiating traits of examined phenomena,
(d) selection and definition of adequate terminology.

The above rules of any research procedure indicate that in practice their application requires:
(a) appointing an experienced research group and its head,
(b) permitting free personal contacts for the entire group,
(c) determining the budget covering the costs of monographic work, translations, reviews, study tours, correspondence etc.

These factors must be considered while making a decision on comparative studies.

Assessment of gathered material

The initiative launched by the Round Table on Reading Habits to gather information on children's and young people's reading in various countries may be assessed from the point of view of the initially optimistic assumption or the obtained effects. Firstly, it was naive to maintain that all necessary research conditions enumerated under section 1 could be substituted by the good will of our colleagues (authors of information). Secondly, data relating to countries in question have an incomparable form (they are partly copies of articles published beforehand) and an equally incomparable content. Not to mention the fact that they do not represent any region of the world or group of countries with a similar socio-cultural or civilisational status.

The data were gathered by means of a questionnaire. It included seven main points grouping the following issues: (1) general information, (2) state of eduction, (3) book and other print production, (4) dissemination of print materials, and reading, (5) other media, (6) research on young people's reading, (7) overview and conclusions.

The questions included in the questionnaire were not categorized, they had a rather open character, which of course opened the possibility for providing data at liberty, but also added difficulty to the final description of the obtained material. Until today 20 countries have returned the completed questionnaire. The acquired material is greatly diversified. The only common trait in the formal sense is the time to which the data relate. With few exceptions the supplied information pertains to the years 1987–1988, although there are earlier data dating back to 1959, 1976, 1985, 1986.

The described phenomena may roughly be divided into two groups. The first includes statistical data on publishing, libraries, schools etc. The second embraces the descriptions of reading processes such as the relations between school education and interests in fiction and popular science, relations between psychosocial development of a child and reading interests etc. The statistical data of the first group became out-dated as a result of political and social changes that took place in the countries of Middle and Eastern Europe in 1989–1990. Before our very eyes the monopoly of the state in book production collapsed. Over the past year at least 170 private publishing houses have come to existence in Poland, publishing also books for children. Book prices have risen, principles of public library financing are changing, children's and young people's organizations have disintegrated etc. Many issues referring to reading among children and young people in Poland require a new presentation. This applies also to Hungarian, Czech, Slovak, Bulgarian material. The reading interests of children and young people described in the second group are less suspectible to changes, thus more stable, though also here we have observed a characteristic evolution over the past decades. This pertains primarily to the decline of family traditions to tell farity tales, sing songs, greater

interest in comics, infrequent book purchases or absolute lack of the book at home, increasing difficulties in understanding texts among pupils of elementary and secondary schools, the growing habit to devote most of the leisure time to watching television and video. Those phenomena reflect the state of reading among children and young people better than any statistical data. A mere statement that nearly all children of a given country are subject to compulsory education cannot explain why for instance education programmes do not arouse interest in literature and history. It is essential to learn about the content of those programmes in some depth, as well as the foundations of an entire educational system, especially its organizational structure. In other words it is impossible to judge reading habits among children and young people only in library tems. One ought to go beyond statistical data and reach deeper into the social structure of a country, its historical traditions, political and economic system.

3. What are the possibilities of processing the gathered material?

I could see several options here, which are the following:

(a) Selection of the material and taking into account only those answers which are strictly connected with the questionnaire. This would apply to 15 countries: Poland, Yugoslavia, GDR, Hungary, USSR, Czechoslovakia, Bulgaria, Denmark, Holland, Iceland, Norway, Great Britain, China, USA, France. Some of those countries supplied additional information relating directly to the questionnaire. Seven out of the fifteen enumerated countries went through immense social changes, especially in the field of politics and economy. Excluding China and USA, the remaining six countries belong to the European culture.

Two countries (Turkey and India) have sent papers published beforehand. They bear a loose relation to the questionnaire and the information on young people's reading appears to have been chosen at random. A similar impression is gained from information coming from the FRG and Senegal. Producing general information on reading habits among children and young people from those sources would require many completions and specifications, meaning in practice personal contacts with authors, numerous correspondence etc. Not to mention the costs of translating the entire text into English, providing printing facilities, proofreading etc. (b) Publishing a collection of the obtained information, only if it refers to the questionnaire, meaning a volume of papers, which would require writing them anew according to a detailed instruction. This would necessitate signing contracts with authors, appointing an editor, and making the publication possible.

(c) Preparing an extensive article and publishing it in one of the international library periodicals.

The adoption of one of those options requires time and financial means which are not easily found. Consequently, it seems that the proposal under point (c) is most realistic.

Serial "Librarianship and Bibliography Abroad" within the Professional Library Press System in the USSR

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Introduction

The authors are very glad of the opportunity afforded them to speak at the session of the IFLA Round Table of Editors of Library Journals. As the authors work at the Lenin State Library (GBL) they have the opportunity to keep up with the professional library press of the whole world. GBL has a kind of a "library within the library", which holds a rich collection of specialized publications in the field of library science and theory of bibliography (154 thous. items, including over 200 titles of periodicals in the European languages alone).

Current state of professional periodicals in the USSR

Assuming that the audience will find the information on the current state of the library press in the USSR interesting, the authors give a brief characteristic of the publications system dealing with problems of librarianship and bibliography, which covers periodical publications and serials, and primary and secondary source of information. The supplement contains a list of central Soviet journals, year-books concerned with library science, bibliography and informatic and publications which register abstract and review national and foreign library-science literature.

And now a few words about these journals and serials. Among them the most popular are "Librarian", "Soviet Bibliography", "Scientific and Technical Libraries of the USSR", "Soviet Librarianship" and the serial "Librarianship and Bibliography Abroad". Here a substantial specific feature of these publications should be mentioned. Only one of them – the journal "Librarian" is addressed to the broadest community of the country's librarians, mostly from the public libraries. The journal reckons with their major demands and interests. The circle of readers and consequently, the dissemination of the rest of the above-mentioned publications, is narrower. This is connected with their themes and differentiation of information intended for various groups of readers. These publications are, first of all, addressed to research workers, teachers, students of library faculties of universities and institutions of higher learning and to leading specialists of large research libraries. It can, from this standpoint, be asserted that this category of readers is most fully provided with professional periodicals.

However, the specific professional demands of librarians are not reckoned with fully enough. Only one journal – "Scientific and Technical Libraries of the USSR" is intended for librarians of scientific and technical libraries and of STI bodies. Today the librarians of the Soviet Union are establishing library associations and, apparently, with the maturing of these organizations new journals will emerge on the scene.

Serials, which are issued with irregular frequency, expand and supplement the circle of periodical publications. To them belong transactions put out by the leading libraries (for example, by GBL), and collections of transactions (for example, by BAN[1]), the series "Libraries of the USSR Academy of Sciences and the Academies of Sciences of the Union Republics", published by BEN[2].

Furthermore, publications concerned with librarianship and bibliography, are put out by 17 institutes of culture, and by some of the five existing universities and five pedagogical institutes, which have library faculties and departments. For example, since 1956 LGIK[3] publishes the "Transactions" and MGIK[4] the serial "Interdepartmental Collections of research Works."

As regards secondary information on librarianship and bibliography, the bibliographical monthly indexes "Librarianship and Bibliography", jointly published by the Informcentre for culture and art of GBL jointly with VGBIL[5] deserve special mention. Approximately 50 to 60 soviet and foreign periodical publications are indexed in them, as compared to "Library Literature", which indexes over 250 periodicals (a comparison which is no to our credit).

Comparing the "Informatics Abstracts" of the VINITI[5] with its foreign analogues "Library and Information Science Abstracts" (Great Britain) and "Sciences d'information Documentation" (France), we see that it is not inferior to these publications. Annually over 300 periodical publications and serials, put out in 66 languages in 130 countries of the world, are indexed in it.

This system of library periodical publications is supplemented by journals of international organizations, published in the Russian translation: "UNISIST Newsletter. General Information Programme" and "International Forum on Informatics and Documentation" (a quarterly published since 1975). Both publications evoke the interest of Soviet specialists.

Concluding this short outline, we want to note that librarians of the Soviet Union are not fully satisfied with the existing system of periodical publications, it needs to be changed and improved.

Serial "Librarianship and Bibliography Abroad" (BBZR)

In all the domestic publications described above foreign library experience is reflected in one way or another. Articles on the current state of librarianship in foreign countries, information on international conferences and interviews with leading specialists from different countries are published in them. However, it is the serial BBZR, which two years ago marked its 30th anniversary that is wholly given up to problems of librarianship and bibliography abroad. In the period from 1958–1990, 126 issues were put out. Totally 1245 articles by 844 authors, including 805 articles by Soviet authors and 440 articles by foreign authors were published in it. Naturally, these absolute figures cannot fully characterize a publication. In order to give you a better idea about our serial we shall compare it with such authoritative international publications as "IFLA Journal" (IFLA J.) and "International Library review" (ILR) and draw some analogies.

Serial BBZR and ILR

ILR is younger than our serial by 10 years. As it is generally known, it is published quarterly in Great Britain. Recently the authors learned with satisfaction from the letter N. Moore sent to L.F. Kozlova and from "Call to papers. New editorial time" about the changing and perfecting of the activities direction of the ILR editioral board. According to the definition of the new editorial board, "The aim of ILR is to publish high quality critical and analytical articles on matters of library and information services policy throughout the world. Within this overall aim, ILR has established four specific objectives" with which we particularly sympathize. Practically, we worked and continue to work, along similar lines. In contemporary conditions the editorial board of the serial BBZR sees its main objectives in the creation of a system of information support of processes of dissemination and introduction of progressive foreign experience into the practice of Soviet libraries, in the research and theoretical

generalization of the state and contemporary trends of development of librarianship and bibliography abroad.

The staff of the editorial board of our publication has no foreign specialists as opposed to the ILR editorial board, which includes specialists from many countries of the world. However, we aim to build up an international collective of authors (as was mentioned earlier, 411 foreign authors appeared on the pages of our serial). Purposeful and systematic work involved with the commissioning of original materials, which have not been published earlier, expands the collective of authors through the drawing in officials of librarianship, directors and leading specialists of national and large research libraries of the world, young research workers and post-graduate students from different countries studying in Soviet institutes of culture.

As in the ILR, the editorial board of the BBZR aims to acquaint its readers with the state of the art and problems of development of a growing number of countries thus extending the geographical coverage of materials. Of the 61 countries, information on which appeared on the pages of our serial, only in the last few years articles dealing with the librarianship of Angola, Zimbabwe, People's Democratic Republic of Korea, Laos, Madagaskar, the Seychelles, Senegal, Syria, Singapore, Sao Tome and Principe, Sri-Lanka were published. Moreover, priority was given to authors of problem oriented articles on librarianship and bibliography of foreign countries and not to survey materials, though the latter are also represented in the serial.

Unlike the ILR, which had no definite structure designed in advance, our serial aims to lead the reader with the assistance of a flexible system of permanent headings. Until quite recently the editorial staff widely practiced the publication of thematic issues and selection of articles by thematic headings (43 issues and selections were put out in 1958–1989). For example, in recent years special issues devoted to standardization in the field of librarianship, the international comparative study "NB in NATIS", the building and reconstruction of NB buildings, and library service of children, were released.

Parallel with this, the serial for many years had only two permanent sections "International library life" and "Reviews". The traditional structure of the serial became rigid, reflecting an outdated concept of the library world, and was inadequately interconnected with active processes of regeneration and development of librarianship in the age of scientific-technical information. This, as a shortcoming, was marked by many readers. That is why beginning with the 120th issue (1989), the structure and form of presentation of materials were changed and a new system of thematic and genre headings was introduced. Among these new headings are: Library standardization; Familiarization with library organizations; Memorable names; From history of librarianship; Automation of library-bibliographical processes; Libraries of different countries, etc. This form of organization of materials, made it possible to single out the most urgent and prospective problems of librarianship abroad, which are of interest to Soviet specialists, a policy which was approved by readers in their letters.

We think that our serial advantageously differs from the ILR also in that, that each issue not only introduced the authors of the articles, the way it was done in the ILR, in G. Chandler's "Editorial commentary", but provides a summary in E., of all contributions and the translation of the contents into the official languages of IFLA (in E., F., G. and S.).

When preparing this paper and drawing some comparisons with the ILR, we thought feasible and convenient, to include into the subsequent issues of our serial a message-invitation in English with the idea of attracting authors, on the lines of the "Information for Authors" appearing in the ILR.

Serial BBZR and IFLA J.

It would be immodest on the part of the authors to compare their publication with the official international quarterly of IFLA "IFLA J.", the contribution to which might be considered most prestigious. Nonetheless, in the objectives and tasks set for themselves by the editorial boards of "IFLA J." and the serial "BBZR", these two publications are close in their policy of inviting authors contributions. In many things the editorial board of our serial shares the positions of the editorial board of the Journal, which within the 15 years of existence, has made the IFLA J. a publication which is highly regarded by professional librarians throughout the world. The fact that "IFLA J." (in the section preceding the "News section") publishes problem oriented articles and articles dealing with questions of development of library-information processes, is appreciated by readers, who show a permanent interest in it. "IFLA J." has become an important source of information on new phenomena, for example, in information technology.

Comparing the lay-out of the "IFLA J." and our serial, we see, as noted above, that our serial presents summaries, only in E. and not in the four official languages of IFLA (excluding R.) as the "IFLA J." does.

IFLA on the pages of the serial BBZR

In no way seeking to compete with the IFLA J., we want to say that our serial always aimed to acquaint readers with IFLA activities. In different years it frequently published translations of official IFLA documents, articles on its establishment, history, results of 20 sessions and General Conferences (since the USSR became a member of IFLA in 1959), and the activities of different divisions and sections. All in all, in issues 1–126, 69 materials were printed, among them translations of official documents –4; on IFLA General Conferences –23; on pre-session seminars –4; on IFLA core programmes –4; on activities of different IFLA divisions –22; on IFLA history –1; on international organizations (IFLA members) –7; reviews of IFLA publications –4.

Towards IFLA-91

On the threshold of the Moscow IFLA Session (1991), the serial BBZR has embarked upon the path of regular coverage of multi-aspect activities of the IFLA. The editorial board aims to acquaint Soviet specialists with the work of our Federation on a broad and many-sided basis. With this object in view, starting with issue No. 119, a new permanent heading "Towards the 57th IFLA Session (Moscow, 1991)" was opened and has met with the approval of IFLA officials IFLA president: Dr. H.-P.Geh, IFLA Secretary General M.P. Nayta and former Coordinator of professional activities Mr. G. van Wesemael. Under this heading appear articles on IFLA core programmes, and on activities of sections and Round Tables (RT), information and survey materials dealing with regular IFLA sessions, reviews of major IFLA publications, etc.

Wishing to provide Soviet specialists with first-hand information, the editorial board has invited the executives of 27 IFLA units to send their contributions to the serial and officials of 19 sections and RT have already presented their materials. We are sorry to say that not all of them have responded to our appeal. Some Soviet specialists, who participated in professional activities of the IFLA, have also prepared materials dealing with the Federation's structural units, international organizations = IFLA members, and reviews of IFLA publications and periodical publications, for this heading. This section of the serial is approved and supported by readers and it will, undoubtedly, help Soviet specialists, who will participate in the work of the Moscow Session of IFLA and allow the librarians of our country to more

broadly acquaint themselves with the problems with which their colleagues in different countries are faced.

The serial BBZR as a chronicle of international cooperation

From the very beginning of its existence the serial had the heading "Interntional Library Life" and it was only recently that its name was changed and it is now called "International Meetings". The existence of this section reflects the aim to reveal the participation of Soviet specialists in international conferences, sessions and seminars as widely as possible. If we were to take all the publications issued under these headings and align them in chronological order, we would end up with a sort of chronicle of international library cooperation of Soviet librarians.

The serial BBZR as a collective organizer of research of librarianship abroad

Attempts to study the state-of-art and prospects of research of problems of librarianship and library science abroad, made in the 80s in our country brought about a situation, when the serial acquired one more function, which was new to it, that of a collective organiser and coordinator of research in our country of problems of librarianship and bibliography science abroad. Since 1981, the editorial board prepares five-year "Summary medium-term plans of research and information activities in the field librarianship abroad" on an interdepartmental basis. The second "Summary plan... for 1986–1990" covers 161 works by 118 authors, representing 26 large libraries, institutes of culture and other agencies of the Soviet Union (including article for BBZR).

These "Summary plans..." reflect all the "richness" and "poverty" of the state-of-art of research in our country on librarianship and bibliography abroad. On the one hand, they show the urgency of the problems of some studies, and, on the other hand, their chromous breath, multi-theme character, and a strong dependence on the personal interests of the researchers. Without aspiring to regulate the process of research of problems of librarianship abroad, the "Summary plans..", nevertheless, permit the editorial board to be well posted about research projects of different researchers and identify potential authors of contributions for the serial.

Reader feedback

To our thinking, the serial as a research publication, needs constant feedback, cooperation and interaction with readers. With this aim in view, the editorial board regularly organizes discussions of the materials of the serial with readers-specialists. Such discussions took place in Moscow (1970, 1971, 1983, 1989), Leningrad (1970, 1981), Kiev (1971, 1990), Vilnius (1970), and Novosibirsk. One such discussion was held abroad in Sofia in 1974. This form of communication with the readers was supplemented by a questionnaire, which was published in issue No. 109 of the serial. The answers of the respondents provided information on the composition, needs and interests of the readers and allowed us to learn how they assessed our serial. The existence of interest in our serial is borne out by the fact that it was quite frequently reviewed in professional publications of foreign countries.

Reference aids of the serial BBZR

The usage of the serial is facilitated by the Classified index of its contents, put out in 1986. This cumulative index reveals the contents of the first hundred issues of the serial. It is made up of the main (classified) part and auxiliary indexes to it: subject index, index of authors, reviewers and works, entered under the title, and a geographical index. The materials of subsequent sets of ten issues have their own cumulations in indexes, placed in issues No. 111.

and No. 121 of the serial. This arrangement helps specialists to find their bearings in the published information. These indexes also help the BBZR to perform the functions of a Russian "encyclopedia" of librarianship and bibliography abroad.

Conclusion

And so the authors aimed to present a brief survey of the current state of the professional library press in the USSR. We attempted to establish the place of the BBZR within the system of Soviet professional publications in the field of librarianship and draw some analogies with the well-known foreign publications "IFLA J." and "ILR".

The authors thank the officials of the RT for their invitation to participate in this meeting for we think that this exchange of opinion and pooling of experience is extremely important for editors of library journals. One of the authors of this paper, O.Diakonova, was at the outset of the first meeting of library journals editors in UNESCO in 1972. This why the activities of the RT invariably interest us.

In this connection we would like to offer some suggestions for your discussion. We think it would be a good idea to conduct a regular comparative analysis (study) of professional library serials and with this aim in view prepare an appropriate questionnaire and to republish within the "IFLA Publications" series, the guidelines "Library Journals: How to edit them", prepared for the RT by D.H. Borchardt (issued in the series "IFLA Professional Reports") supplementing this material with the most interesting reports delivered at General Conferences.

We also suggest that the RT pay more attention to the exchange of information between editors of journals on such a question as forms of maintenance of communication with readers (questionnaires, discussions, etc).

We also think that a regular exchange of information on the formal aspect of the publications, such as their lay-out, form of presentation of contents, the presence of data on authors and summaries of articles in foreign languages, etc., i.e. on the composition of the reference and auxiliary aids of the publications and their polygraphic makeup, would be useful. Moreover, this is, as we know, envisaged in the Medium-Term Programme for 1986–1991.

In conclusion the authors have the pleasure to invite all the participants of this meeting to Moscow for the 57th IFLA Session of the Council and General Conference, especially as our serial is doing much in the way of preparing Soviet readers for this event.

Notes

1. BAN – Library of the Academy of Sciences in Leningrad
2. BEN – Library of Natural Sciences in Moscow
3. LGIK – Leningrad State Institute of Culture
4. MGIK – Moscow State Institute of Culture
5. VGBIL – All-Union State Library of Foreign Literature
6. VINITI – All-Union Institute of Scientific and Technical Information under the State Committee of the USSR for Science and Technology and the USSR Academy of Sciences.

Central Soviet journals, quarterlies, yearbooks, abstracts and review publications on librarianship and bibliography

Primary sources of information

"Bibliotekar" (Librarian) – a socio-political and scientific and methodological monthly of the USSR Ministry of Culture, All-Union Central Council of Trade Unions and the RSFSR

Ministry of Culture. Founded in September, 1923. Intended for wide sections of librarians.

"Bibliotekovedenie i bibliografia za rubezhom" (Librarianship and Bibliography Abroad) – a quarterly serial published by the GBL. Founded in 1958. Intended for researchers, teachers, post-graduate students, students of library faculties of universities and institutions of higher learning, and personnel of libraries and STI bodies.

"Kniga. Issledovania i materialy" (The Book. Studies and materials) – a serial put out with irregular frequency by the Research-and-Production Association "All-Union Book Chamber". Issues 1–58. 1958–1989.

"Nauchno-teknicheskaja informatsia" (Scientific and Technical Information (S-JJ, Series 1, 2) – a monthly of the VINITI of the USSR. Academy of Sciences. Published since 1961 in two series: Series 1. Organization and methodology of information activities; Series 2. Information processes and systems.

"Nauchno-technicheskie biblioteki SSSR" – (Scientific and Technical Libraries of the USSR) – a monthly serial on questions of theory and practice of librarianship. Founded in 1961. Medium of the State Committee of the USSR for Science and Technology. Intended for workers of research and technical libraries and STI bodies.

"Sovetskaia bibliografia" (Soviet bibliography) – a research and practical journal. Published since 1933. Frequency: 6 issues a year. Put out by all union book chamber.

"Soviet Librarianship" – a scientific serial. Published since 1952. Frequency: 6 issues a year. Put out by the GBL.

Secondary sources of information

"Bibliotechnoje delo i bibliografia" (Librarianship and Bibliography) – a monthly bibliographical index. Published since 1974 jointly with VGBIL in two series: "Librarianship and Bibliography in the USSR" and "Librarianship and Bibliography Abroad". Includes information on new foreign and national publications selected from current acquisitions in GBL and VGBIL. Intended for researchers, teachers, post-graduate students and students. Can be recommended for use in libraries and information agencies.

"Kultura i iskusstvo za rubezhom. Bibliotechnoie delo i bibliografia: express-informacia" (Culture and Art Abroad. Librarianship and Bibliography: Express-information) – a monthly put out by GBL jointly with VGBIL. Published since 1975.

"Referativnyi zhurnal 59 Informatika" (Informatics Abstracts) – a monthly journal of the VINITI of the USSR Academy of Sciences. Published since 1963. Includes abstracts of foreign publications.

"Informatika: express informatsia" (Informatics: Express-information) – an abstracts journal of VINITI of the USSR Academy of Sciences. Published since 1979. Frequency: 4 issues a month (48 issues a year). Contains abstracts of the most topical foreign materials, the contents of which need to be revealed quickly.

The Study Circle Library in a Historical Perspective

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Abstract
The earlier Prime Minister of Sweden, the late Olof Palme, on one occasion named his country a "study circle democracy". He thereby indicated the important role that adults studies in small groups have played in the democratic development in Sweden and in lifelong learning. Such activites have not only expanded throughout the years but also changed in some respects. During the first decades of the 20th century the library was the centre around which these study activities circled. The study circle can from the beginning be regarded as a way to make the library equally accessible to every one.

This author maintains that the pedagogical ideas behind the manifestation of these study circle libraries are still valid and that public libraries in the future have a great task to fulfil as a resource for adult individuals and groups in their independent pursuit of knowledge.

Background
To be able to appreciate the importance of the study circle library it is necessary to draw attention to what the concept "self-education" signifies. As the term indicates the concept means to educate oneself. However the idea of self-education does not primarily mean individual studies but instead that members of popular movements or other collectives "take knowledge into their own hands" and create their own education. Tradition shows that self-education can take place in many forms, not least in small groups. At the end of the last century, IOGT in Sweden, for instance, gathered inspiration for such small group activities from the Chautauqua movement in the USA.

In Sweden the library very early was viewed as the best means of realizing the idea of self-education. A movement for public libraries was developing in the beginning of the twentieth century. (Swedish General Library Association, still in existence, was formed in 1915). The inspiration for this movement, among others, came from the USA and Britain. Alongside the public library, association libraries and study circle libraries were created.

Circulation libraries represented an outreaching branch of library activity. These were initiated partly by popular education associations, partly by the popular education bureaus at the universities in Lund and Uppsala. The popular education societies consisted of upper class people who eagerly supported the education of the people, whereas interested university teachers took the initiative for the universities' popular education bureau. Apart from the circulation libraries the activity that emanated from these bureaus consisted of popular lectures.

Finally, at the turn of the century, the study circle became, together with library and lecture, a more or less organized form for the practice of self-education. Education in the form of a study circle could be pursued in spite of insufficient economic means and lack of teachers. Thus, it has become the most widely spread form of popular adult education in Sweden.

The study circle library and the social movements

From 1912 government financial support was allocated to two kinds of public libraries, municipal libraries and study circle libraries. This financial support became by the way, the direct reason for founding the Workers' Education Association that same year.

The development of the study circle libraries has a direct relationship with that of the Swedish popular movements. The basis for these libraries was formed by the association libraries, which in turn could be regarded as action oriented institutions.

As they were located in the same places as the association and were kept open during association meetings, they were used by thousands of people who would not otherwise have visited any library. Many people in this way developed an interest for reading books. In addition this interest was strenghtened by the fact that association members were themselves responsible for the library and its care.

The study circles became another pushing force in the same direction:

> An important point in the study circle programme – maybe the most important one – is: "One library in every meeting place!" The task of the associations is to be foci of culture in one way or another and the association members will therefore become better at this work, if they have access to a library. One bookshelf in every association as well as in every home![1]

An essential reason for the popular movements to start building up their own libraries was that the older forms of public libraries, the parish libraries, had too limited collections of books to fulfil the needs of the movements for their membership education. The financial support from the government gave the movements new possibilities to promote their library acitivities. After completing their studies on a subject, the study circles were obliged to return their books to the association library, where these sometimes comprise a special department. Those critical to the government support of study circle libraries stressed that it would be more sensible for all within a community concerned about public reading to join forces and form one single, neutral library association. Besides saving money such an arrangement would also avoid secterist and party politics views on the choice of literature.

According to the defenders of the idea, the disappearance of the small movement libraries would cause irrevocable damage, since the task of these libraries was to spread books to as many people as possible. The municipal libraries did not reach as far as the movement libraries, despite their better resources. It was stated, that in America there had already for a long time been a general understanding that the library had to go to the people, if the people did not go to the library. In Sweden the movement libraries would fulfil that progressive function. In addition, they would in the long run give the municipal libraries a larger audience, when they gradually became too limited for some readers. Thus, even if the movement libraries were comparatively small, their importance was considerable.

> Especially the older libraries have been of great importance in our sparsely populated country, where they many times have served the public with the only good reading they have had access to. And they are all growing book collections, albeit in slow growth.
>
> Most important, though, is that they are going through with the programme, "every association room also a library room", a necessary requirement for the popular associations' character as a cultural institution as well. Not only should there exist municipal libraries, but books should be accessible everywhere where people meet.[2]

The development meant a considerable expansion of the study circle libraries. In 1912 municipal libraries and study circle libraries existed in about equal numbers. Nine years later there were more than two thousand state supported circle libraries and not quite nine hundred

municipal libraries. The number of book loans in the association circle libraries grew from 117.000 to 660.000 per year during the same time.

The library was the centre of popular adult education. The study circle became, as it were, a new and more democratic way of organizing library activities, since its members had influence over the book supply. The study circle was a part of a bigger whole, where the library was in the centre. In 1947 the government support was replaced by a subsidy towards study literature and study leaders. Consequently, the study circle libraries were gradually wound up. Within the WEA, however, a few libraries were in operation until the beginning of the 1970's.

That the study circle libraries disappeared as a phenomenon, does not mean that the ideas behind their first appearance were lost. On the contrary, these ideas might be very interesting in a future "society of knowledge" or "learning society".

The study circle library from a pedagogical point of view

First, it ought to be said that library activities in themselves were regarded as a method of self-education. Special handbooks were published, where practical instructions were given about book purchases, catalogues, book loans etc.[3]

> At least in the country side, taking care of the library is the most important task for the study circle. The present situation is such that the members feel that the libraries are theirs and that care and growth of the libraries are their responsibility, their personal concern.
>
> Further, I mean that this personal interest in the library, which hundreds of thousands of members in popular associations have or will have in connection with the growth of the libraries through their contributions and their sense of responsibility, is a living force, not only in popular education as a whole but also in public library operation, which must not be jeopardized. This personal public interest is of greater importance than the most ideal centralization under the most prominent professional librarians in the most exquisite library organization.[4]

The central position of the library is based on the idea of the book as the most important source of knowledge in popular adult education. According to this idea, one meets "the great teachers of humanity" in all work of fiction – and adult individuals and groups, in pursuit of knowledge, should not settle for less.

> Books and libraries take up a central position in all popular education. It is only natural that such is the case. The book is, no doubt, the foremost means of education, and individual reading one of the most important grounds for all knowledge.
>
> Just like the library is a necessary tool for scientific research, it must also be the foundation for free and voluntary popular education.[5]

The pioneers of the Swedish study circle activities differ in their emphasis of books and libraries, from for instance the founder of the Danish Folk High School, N.F.S. Grundtvig, who regarded "the living word", i.e. the oral presentation and the lecture as the superior method.

From a pedagogical perspective one can apply the following viewpoints concerning the library as a form of popular adult education.

The library facilities free, independent and joint search for knowledge

The study circle in a natural way linked up with the free comradeship and social life which had developed in the regular work within the popular associations. Through the study circles the members established closer links with the association and its meeting programme was, at the same time, raised to a higher level.

> The study circles grew from the beginning with a double task. On one hand, they were to provide means for quenching the actual thirst for knowledge, especially among the young Good templars, on the other hand, they were to gather all Good templars, young and old, in a highly cultivated social life around the fundamental interests in life and society. Precisely the cultural communication was supposed to be the main point in the organization, freely chosen topics for "roundtable discussions", carefully prepared by special openers and at least somewhat reflected upon by all members through reading of literature from the study circle library.[6]

The free discourse in Platon's dialogues with Sokrates as a leader was the pedagogical model for "the father of the study circle", Oskar Olsson, when he presented his ideas at the beginning of the century. The library gave liberty, and at the same time, the organization of permanent groups in the form of study circles gave the book studies some regularity of plan. One could say that the study circle was a method to make library operations more efficient.

The library is an expression of self activity

The most important feature of self-education is initiative. Individuals and groups do not go into pre-produced patterns but decide for themselves about goals, content, methods, and time for their studies. Everyone decides about his task and pursues knowledge independently. Library work agrees well with the basic idea, even if the independent search sometimes is completed with supervision and suggestions about suitable literature.

Books give opportunities for reflection and repetition

Compared to several other methods and media – not least modern mass media – the book gives opportunities to return to the materia for renewed inquiry and analyses. In the library there is also access to alternative literature, which can contribute to studies in depth and to new ideas. It is to be regarded as a loss to the Swedish study circle movement that utilization of the library has diminished. Pre-fabricated study hand books and modern equipment can not, in my view, compensate for the library as a resource in independent search for knowledge.

The book and the library represent continuity

At an early stage, the library became, as stated earlier, the centre of popular adult education. Library activities were coordinated with lectures and courses as well as the study circles. They gave a broad orientation, while the library made a deeper study possible. Through lectures and courses – as well as through mass media – new information of current interest can be communicated. The library in this connection offers continuity and coherence, a necessity to someone who seeks knowledge and not just information.

Concluding remarks

The study circle library was created in a special historical and social context, in close connection with the Swedish popular movements. Experiences from this work, however, indicate the possibilities in the future for the public library to act as a centre for individuals and groups in their pursuit of knowledge in a deeper sense and not only as a centre of information – even if the latter too is to be regarded as an important, if not necessary, task in a democratic society. Such a society needs not only well-informed but also knowledgeable citizens.

[1] Olsson, O. *Studiecirkelbiblioteket och biblioteksskötsel.* Stockholm: Oskar Eklunds bokförlag, 1916, s 9.
[2] Olsson, O. "Till Tjugoårsminnet". *Bokstugan* 1922, s 154.

[3] Olsson, O. *Studiecirkelbibliotek och biblioteksskötsel.* Stockholm: Oskar Eklunds bokförlag. 1916; Nyström, B. *Om läsning och bibliotek.* Stockholm: Svenska Missionsförbundets förlag, 1915
[4] Olsson, O. "Folkbildningskommitténs utlåtande II". *Bokstugan* 1924, s 54 f
[5] Tynell, F. *Folkbiblioteken i Sverige.* Stockholm: P.A. Norstedt & Söners Förlag, 1931, s 148 f
[6] Olsson, O. "Sammanhållning". I *Reformatorn* 1936, nr 43

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In Search of the Informed Citizen – Study Circles as Bridges between Libraries and Learning*

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The individual's knowledge resources – a future question of equal rights

The idea of an enlightened and critical citizenry is nothing new in our time and age. We have an important heritage of ideas from classical scholarly ideals via the thoughts and ideas of the Renaissance and the Enlightenment, continuing on to applied arts and sciences and ending at modern standards of adult and popular education. Seen from an historical aspect, adult education has been an important implement in the development of the democratic process in the Nordic countries. This is the case whether or not we define democracy in a general sense where elected representatives act as proxy for the interests of the majority, or as different forms of direct democracy, consumer influence or the democracy of membership in a popular movement. The advent of folk high schools during the 1860s and the development of study circles at the turn of the century as an added dimension to the role of the library in society are both examples of adult education using the concept of self-education as a guideline. Another interesting phase of this development was the introduction of study circle activities by the various associations to a more general public after the Second World War. These measures were taken, to a large extent, because adult education and learning could serve as a safeguard against political propaganda and authoritarian tendencies.

Making use of the educational ideals and philosophies of the past in a modern situation will, of course, present problems. There are numerous aspects separating modern educational problems from those of years gone by. In the first place, general compulsory education is nowadays the rule, rather than the exception. The youth of today have an education totalling about twelve years. This is around twice as long as was the case only fifty years ago. The Nordic countries have also had an active tradition of adult and popular education within popular movements and organizations. Public libraries, lectures, folk high schools and study circles are implements of education first fashioned and developed during the last century, and in all probability they will be useful far into the twenty first century.

Institutional conditions for creating, retaining and propagating knowledge have developed in a manner in which previous generations could hardly imagine. As cables and satellites have become commonplace, the outer reaches of what is possible to achieve have been transcended many times over. As far as libraries or information centers are concerned, the changes have been particularly radical.

Nowadays it is possible from a small rural Swedish community to use a computer to scan and search for relevant titles and subjects in worldwide databases and to be able to use that gleaned information directly in the computer or have it printed out. This veritable downpour of information – and even other bits and pieces of related facts and knowledge – can be seen as both a threat and a challenge to the informed citizen of today.

* This paper is a short version of a contribution to the IFLA Round Table on Continuing Professional Education, Stockholm, August 20, 1990.

The structures for the development, organization and communication of knowledge reflect power and possession in a more sweepingly than ever before. The possession of knowledge are the assets and wealth of modern society. Those youth and adults who lack necessary educational skills risk becoming second-hand citizens in a social and working environment.

The strong emphasis on equality and justice that were an integral part of the aims of the Swedish educational reforms of the seventies acquires a new validity in the knowledge-oriented society of the nineties. It is not only a question of overcoming the differences between generations. Even as much so it is a question of strengthening other knowledge profiles, of enlarging the borders and enhancing the content of learning at the workplace, of bridging the gap between technology and liberal arts.

Who guarantees the right to knowledge and learning?

On an international plane there is a related discussion concerning *learning rights or the Adult Learner Bill of Rights.* In 1985, the Fourth International Conference on Adult Education which took place in Paris under the auspices of UNESCO, defined the right to learn in the following way:

- read and write
- to question and analyze
- to imagine and create
- to read one's own world and to write history
- to have access to educational resources
- to develop individual and collective skills

This discussion received renewed interest during the international literacy year when the basic skills of young people concerning reading, writing and mathematics are stressed. The rights to learning concern partly *what type of knowledge and education should be guaranteed all citizens* and also *what supportive measures on an institutional basis are needed to realize these objectives.*[1] The concept of literacy is used nowadays in several different contexts, e.g. reading literacy, cultural literacy, workplace literacy, family literacy and information literacy. The issue of adult illiteracy or functional adult illiteracy is a current and relevant policy issue in most western countries, even though the concept is being increasingly questioned in the research community. As an example, President Bush has stated that "by the year 2000 ,every adult American will be literate and possess knowledge and skills necessary to compete in a global economy and exercise the rights and responsibilities of citizenship."

Equal opportunities in a knowledge-oriented society can not be expected to be a result of the level of education an individual has or does not have. A condition that is just as important is the capability and individual has for *self-discipline and self-organization in his studies and quest for knowledge.* The evolution of a learning society with an increased intertwining of different types of learning in, for example formal adult education, popular education, commissioned training programs at the workplace and external studies tends to favor adults with a good basic education, self-confidence and a high degree of self-sufficiency in the furthering of their own studies.

The same line of reasoning can be used about the infrastructure of the knowledge-oriented society – libraries, databases, technical centers, civic halls and popular movements. Even here there is a demand for specific user know-how in order to gain access to necessary information in an efficient manner.

[1] The recent UNESCO declaration from the Jomtien World Conference: *Education for All*, also reflects these objectives.

Self-organized learners will probably be among those who gain most from the new knowledge-oriented society. The losers, on the other hand, will be those individuals who do not have the initiative to learn on their own. Therefore, an important redistributive political instrument is to create positive attitudes to the quest for knowledge and learning among adults with less than positive memories from their school years and with other psychological obstacles. Otherwise there is a risk that we will see a new stratification consisting of those who make efficient use of the opportunities afforded by a massmedial, information-based society in both a private and professional capacity on the one hand and confused on-lookers or dropouts on the other.

Databases – an efficient tool for adult and popular education?

Databases will be discussed here as a pedagogical tool for adult education i.e. a way of making scientific and other knowledge available to the general population, but databases as an administrative aid to library personnel will not be included in this context. The first step is to analyze what level of competency individuals need for information retrieval and what the costs are for gaining access to this information. Databases can be used for a number of various purposes. This in turn brings to the fore different preconditions for learning. Databases can, on the one hand, serve as an aid to compiling references, summaries and other pieces of information about certain subjects and on the other hand be used to provide specific answers to questions by sifting through existing registers and lists, for example in analyzing living conditions in a certain geographical region. There are great pedagogical differences between a more extensive search of reference material and an intensive analysis of a given problem or subject. Databases and libraries are examined here as an integral part of the ideology, historical progression and the modern reality of popular education.

Outline of content

The full version of this paper will comprise:

a) a description and analysis of the new societal context for study circles
b) the utilization of study circles and databases in popular and adult education
c) some concluding remarks on the new challenges of the information society as far as active and knowledge-seeking citizens are concerned

The full version of the paper together with references will be presented at the IFLA Round Table, August 20, 1990.

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